

THE DYNAMICS
of the COUNSELING PROCESS



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The Dynamics of the Counseling Process

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FOREWORD

Education is America's greatest endeavor. When the history of the United States is written in perspective, her great public- and private-school systems, in spite of their weaknesses, probably will be considered her most nearly unique and most significant contribution to man's progress. This far-flung educational effort rests upon a faith that all citizens in a democracy *can be* and *should be* educated. That belief in the dignity and potential of the individual is a cornerstone of a free and developing society.

Counseling has become an indispensable aspect of this educational effort. An awareness that effective education must in some way meet the interests and needs of individual students has created a great and increasing interest in counseling and counseling techniques—an interest which has produced an important movement in education and psychology.

Is *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process* just another book on the popular theme of counseling? I have found it to be much more than that. These are the distinguishing features of the volume which make it a significant contribution to counseling practice and theory:

1. It is concerned with normal individuals, that large group of people who need some assistance in the process of achieving maturity but who are not seriously pathological. This group includes from 95 to 98 per cent of the high-school and college population and hence is the chief concern of most counselors and teachers. In a very important sense this book uses the preventive, or mental-hygiene, approach to counseling.

2. This volume reveals a desirable balance between principle, or theory, and practice. The book is in no sense "a bag of tricks" for the untrained counselor who is seeking quick success, but it contains a great deal of practical help for the practicing counselor or for persons interested in developing and improving a counseling program. Although the authors are not overtechnical and theoretical, they clearly

have developed a central theory which gives unity and meaning to the practical procedures suggested.

3. The book is based upon a thorough knowledge of the counseling literature, and particularly the important research in the field, but at the same time it is clearly and interestingly written.

4. Emphasis throughout the volume is upon the client, for the authors believe that all effective adjustment must, in the final analysis, be self-adjustment. The counselor may help the client in many ways, but he cannot learn for him.

5. Most important of all, *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process* conceives of counseling as an intimate part of the educative process and not as an appendage to education. For these authors, counseling is essentially a permissively oriented learning situation. The creation of an interview "climate," in which effective problem solving by the client can take place, is the central task of self-adjustive counseling. This book is designed to assist counselors in the development of the attitudes and skills necessary to this approach. Thus, counseling becomes what it should be—an indispensable and interrelated aspect of the total educative process.

This book will serve many purposes. First, it will be a very useful text in courses in counseling and guidance, clinical psychology, student-personnel techniques, personnel psychology, counseling for nurses, and other specialized, professional personnel courses at the upper division and graduate levels.

Second, the book will be a helpful addition to the professional library of all counselors and teachers, especially those working at the high-school and the college levels. It will serve as a valuable handbook for in-service training of counselors and teacher-counselors.

Third, although the book was written primarily for counselors in educational institutions, its principles are equally applicable to all counseling; thus it will be of worth to counselors in business, industry, government, social work, and religion. The principles of the book apply to all types of problems: educational, vocational, marital, financial, familial, and social. Thus, all persons concerned with personality will find this book profitable, for it presents a well-conceived methodology for counseling the whole person.

Finally, it should be noted that the authors are actively engaged in

counseling work. They write from the vantage point of the practicing counselor and teacher. There is, therefore, nothing here of the detached ivory-tower approach. Every chapter reflects the common touch and the common sense that come only from constant and sensitive contact with students.

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INTRODUCTION

The counseling services of schools and colleges are rapidly becoming accepted as an integral part of the total educational program. These services provide resources for helping the student to formulate educational-vocational goals and to plan a program of curricular and non-curricular activities which will be purposeful and efficient. Counseling services also give the student access to professional help in dealing with the many personal problems which plague young people during this important developmental period. These problems may concern study habits and skills, vocational uncertainty, use of time, failure to make friends, homesickness, feelings of rejection, adjustment to home and dormitory life, sex interests, particular frustrating experiences, and other situations and conditions that cause anxiety and tension.

Schools and colleges have always provided faculty advisors, informational bulletins, and other arrangements for aiding the student to plan a study program. These services have been friendly and informative and have reflected interest in the welfare of the student. Yet this interest has been essentially that of maintaining academic and administrative sequences and regulations. Primary allegiance of the staff member has been to the institution. These are necessary services in an institution as complex as a school or college. A guidance or student personnel program has responsibility for primary facets of institutional and student life. Such matters as health, social activities, student government, athletic programs, admissions, student accounting, relationships with other schools, with parents and alumni, and other student-staff activities affect the vitality and stability of the whole institution. These activities require well-conceived organization and loyal, skilled administration.

Counseling is one aspect of the student personnel program. It involves a highly intimate, personal relationship with the student. It is concerned with personalizing and individualizing the whole educational program as it affects the life of the student client. It is the view of the authors of this book that effective counseling requires a new focus of allegiance. This allegiance is to the student, the client. Counseling is

different from advisement, in both attitudes and techniques. In common with competent advisement, it makes use of facts concerning the client, the institution, and the environmental setting. It is different in its greater concern for the quality and dynamics of the relationship between counselor and client. The nature of this relationship conditions the use made of personal and environmental data.

The view of counseling expressed here does not fit neatly into any of the "schools" which currently dominate the literature. The view is empirical and developmental. The authors have rather fully explored the abundance of guidance and counseling literature available at this mid-century period. They have also experimented with what seemed to be promising leads. What is presented is a synthesis of these two problem-solving approaches. Yet this is not a cold research report. The synthesis conceived has caught the emotional allegiance of the creators.

The writer of this introduction has had the pleasure of working with the authors for three years at Stanford University. The research upon which this volume is based was conceived and carried out at the Stanford Counseling and Testing Center. Together with their coworker, Dr. George D. Barahal, director of the center, they set out to explore a program of student counseling which would conserve the many values of the program developed under the aegis of the United States Veterans Administration, with its high regard for competence in the use of personal and environmental data, and which would at the same time give greater weight to the vital process of counselor-client relationship.

Although this book was developed primarily in a college setting, it should be stressed that the ideas presented here have many applications to counseling at various levels and situations. The first section of the book attempts to identify the process of counseling within the broad field of educational services. Particular attention is given to acknowledging the contributions of many workers to the development of a body of knowledge concerning counseling. Out of these evolving trends are drawn the elements of the point of view, the new frame of reference, to which the writers subscribe. The main body of the manuscript presents a view of the process in action. Applications are made to various counseling situations. At all points the view is related and compared with concepts and findings of others in the field. The

organization of the chapters is in terms of the developmental aspects of counseling with a student. Thus, one finds consideration of developing readiness, the nature of sequential interviews, and other client contacts. Finally, attention is given to evaluating the outcomes of counseling and relating these values to other elements of the educational program.

The view is expressed throughout that counseling is a service available to all students, needed by many. Student populations are made up of intellectually able and emotionally normal young people. The concept of counseling presented here is intended to meet the needs of such a group. It is not intended as therapy for the mentally ill. These the counselor refers to psychiatric services. Nor is counseling presented as a substitute for the personal interest of the instructor in his students. It is, rather, a professional service available for such needs as personal planning and resolution of problems that impede effective living. The gist of the concept is embodied in the phrase "think with." The counselor seeks not to think for his client, nor merely to think about him. He seeks rather the development of a relationship which will bring about *mutual* thinking on the needs of the moment and will provide meaningful experience in problem solving which will aid the client to become self-directive.

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Chapter 1

COUNSELING: A STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICE

In recent years, counseling has taken its place as a respected branch of the science of psychology and as a vital service in well-organized student personnel programs in schools, colleges, and universities. Personnel workers, for some time, however, have differed in their definitions of counseling. For example, Bingham and Moore think of counseling as being synonymous with interviewing; for them, the interview is "the conversation with a purpose" (16, p. 1).¹ Garrett calls counseling "a professional conversation" (61, p. 8). These are concise definitions, but they do not describe the counseling process adequately.

Not until recent years has counseling been given an operational definition. Rogers says that counseling is "a series of direct contacts with the individual which aims to offer him assistance in changing his attitudes and behavior" (139, p. 3).

The following definition of counseling embraces and extends the elements of the preceding ones. *Counseling*, as employed in this book, is defined as "a purposeful, reciprocal relationship between two people in which one, a trained person, helps the other to change himself or his environment."

Since the counseling to be described in this book is ordinarily regarded as one of the facilitative services of a broad student personnel program, the phrase "student personnel counseling" will also be employed as a descriptive term.

Although much progress has been made in the field of counseling, confusion still exists. Cowley, in discussing counseling, writes that in recent decades it has "(1) boomed, (2) become specialized, and (3) the 'whole student' has been chopped up into slices with few institutions making provisions for anyone to put the slices back together again" (38, p. 4). This statement, of course, refers to the custom

¹ Parenthetical numbers with author names or quotations are keyed to numbered references in the Bibliography on pp. 183-194.

rampant for several years of offering the student counseling in restricted areas by certain highly specialized people. Thus, Cowley maintains, we have qualified the word "counseling" with an adjective: for example, educational counseling, vocational counseling, personal counseling. The danger of this atomistic approach is obvious to personnel workers. We forget that each individual is a whole, which just cannot be taken apart either physically or psychologically. The approach of this book is based upon that idea.

At this point, it would seem appropriate to define certain terms descriptive of counseling so as to clarify the approach that will be developed.

Educational counseling is regarded as the counseling of students which concerns itself primarily with assisting them to decide upon their courses of study.

Vocational counseling is defined as the process of assisting the individual to choose and prepare for an occupation.²

Personal counseling is a broad category which has included in its definition the counseling of *normal* students with such personal problems as lack of friends, marital difficulties, failure in school, feelings of inadequacy and inferiority, and such other matters of concern in the personal realm of the student which *he feels* to be problems. The term does not refer ordinarily to the counseling of extreme *deviates* or to persons with definite psychotic or psychopathic problems.

In accordance with the views expressed by Cowley, counseling as described in this book will embrace all of the types of counseling described above and will not be delimited to any one of them.

Traditional techniques are long-standing guidance procedures, such as highly organized interviews, advice, strong informational and psychometric emphasis, and counselor-centered attitudes.

Client-centered techniques are methods for discovering and clarifying client attitudes. Techniques are viewed from the client's frame of reference and are attitudinal rather than informational. Client participation is emphasized. Client-centered techniques are associated with the writings of Carl Rogers and his students.³ On broad philosophical

² This is not the definition of the National Vocational Guidance Association, which also includes *placement* and *follow-up* in defining vocational guidance.

³ C. R. Rogers' approach has been known historically as "nondirective." *Client-Centered Therapy*, his book published in 1951, states that the term "client-centered" is preferred.

grounds, one could agree that all counseling is "client-centered" if the client's interests and needs are paramount. In this book, however, the term is restricted to the techniques associated with nondirective counseling, and the terms "client-centered" and "nondirective" will be used interchangeably.

Self-adjustive counseling, as employed in this book, is defined as counseling which assists the client to become more self-directive and self-responsible. Its approach is permissive or client-centered in attitude, yet its method employs tests and information if appropriate. The self-adjustive approach maintains that the individual is a unique whole personality and that counseling should facilitate the individual's total maturity as well as focus on his immediate problem-solving processes.

It should be noted that the term "adjustive" rather than "adjustment" is used. This stresses the important idea that the process of achieving maturity is not static but dynamic. The counselor's purpose is not simply to solve the student's problems but to facilitate the process of achieving mature self-direction. Thus, the common pitfall of describing counseling in terms of the kind of problems with which it deals is avoided. Furthermore, describing counseling in terms of the *end*, or goal, which it seeks to achieve also avoids the dangers inherent in attempts to describe counseling in terms of the amount of "direction" given to the process by the counselor.

It will be noted that this definition does not mean to imply that self-adjustive counseling is synonymous with client-centered counseling. Information such as test results and occupational data usually are employed in this approach, whereas they are not ordinarily applied in the client-centered approach.

In other words, the self-adjustive approach employs client-centered techniques as part of the process, but also employs traditional informational techniques in its framework, as long as this information is desired by the client and as long as the information contributes to the goals of counseling.

Opinions vary as to the feasibility of employing client-centered techniques along with information in counseling. For example, some writers state that client-centered techniques cannot be used in vocational counseling, since here the use of information is imperative, a claim which implies that the counselor in this relationship must assume the role of the "expert."

Super, in his recent book *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, writes about the possibilities of client-centered techniques in vocational counseling as follows:

Indeed, one of Rogers' students who works in a university guidance center reports that non-directive counseling seems appropriate in about twenty per cent of the cases seen in the center (Arthur Combs, in an address at the 1946 Regional Conference of the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, Hotel Pennsylvania, New York). More research needs to be carried out on this question before a definite conclusion can be drawn, but the evidence so far suggests that what Rogers has demonstrated with clinic cases *cannot be applied without modification* to school, college, and normal adult cases (175, pp. 3, 4).

Combs, whom Super quotes above, has also written on this question. He says that techniques in vocational counseling must vary, sometimes being directive, at other times nondirective, depending on the nature of the case (34). It is this "middle-of-the-road" stand, taken by so many counselors, which has created more confusion than clarification in counseling methodology. Moreover, it implies that the client-centered approach consists simply of a few tricks or techniques which can, like an overcoat, be put on or taken off at will.

On the other hand, Kilby in a recent article suggests that client-centered techniques are possible in vocational counseling (96). He suggests that the nondirective approach be used in early stages and that the client should have an active part.

Several writers, among them Bixler (17, 18, 20), have shown ways in which attitudes of permissiveness on the part of the counselor can be conveyed, both in discussing with the client types of tests to be administered and in talking over the results afterward. Butler distinguishes between "vocational problems with emotionalization" and those without (27). His thesis is that client-centered techniques are not only possible but imperative when vocational problems have emotional aspects.

In line with the views of Kilby, Bixler, and Butler, above, it is the contention of the authors that the techniques of client-centered counseling can be integrated into a broader type of counseling which employs information and test results in a problem-solving process. The balance of the book develops this approach.

It should be stressed again, however, that the type of counseling

described here is not purely vocational. The self-adjustive approach to counseling allows for sufficient flexibility to deal with several types of counseling problems, such as educational, vocational, marital, financial, familial, and social, while at all times considering the whole individual and his capacity for self-adjustment and self-direction.

AN OVERVIEW

Psychologists agree that a logical and functional set of concepts concerning the structure of personality is necessary to ground firmly one's counseling technique. Therefore, there is presented at the outset of this volume a theory of personality on which the techniques to be described are based.

It is also important that counseling have a consistent and unified methodology. Early in this book a discussion of two other fundamental approaches to counseling, the directive and the nondirective, are discussed. Out of this presentation is developed the self-adjustive approach, which embraces ideas of both directive and nondirective counseling but incorporates them into a new framework of counseling technique and theory.

Certain other concepts are essential to the approach of self-adjustive counseling. These are psychological climate, frame of reference, and problem solving. These concepts, together with personality theory and the approach to methodology, provide a framework in which a process of counseling is evolved.

One unique contribution of this volume is the emphasis upon this developmental, or process, approach to counseling. The usual organization of counseling texts is *topical*, which obscures the process. After a preliminary discussion of the authors' point of view, the text begins with a description of counseling from the initial contact, through the testing and occupational research, to the final interview. In this respect, the book fulfills the need for the "how-to-do-it" approach.

Counseling cannot be grounded upon theory alone; it must be verified constantly by evaluative research. Techniques by which the process described here was evaluated are presented. Other means of counseling evaluation are discussed in a separate chapter devoted to this vital topic.

Finally, consideration is given to applications and implications of the

techniques described for other aspects of school and college academic and personnel work.

SUMMARY

A definition of counseling has been evolved in this chapter and related to other definitions and terms descriptive of the counseling process. The self-adjustive approach to counseling was introduced and contrasted with the traditional and client-centered approaches. The following chapters consider these approaches to counseling in greater detail.

Chapter 2

SELF-ADJUSTIVE COUNSELING:

A POINT OF VIEW

The point of view on which this presentation of counseling is based has two major aspects. Both of these are developmental in the sense that they represent a synthesis of the findings of psychological research in two areas, personality theory and counseling methodology. Perhaps most fundamental is the evaluation of the concept of self. Counseling, as it is here presented, implies that the counselor is concerned with and works with the whole person, the self. This frame of reference requires an exploration of the concept of self. The other necessary and consistent element of this point of view is concerned with methodology: the ways in which the counselor works with and relates himself to the client. In this chapter an attempt will be made to bring together in brief form a concept of self as it is currently conceived by psychological writers, and to summarize current philosophies of counseling.

THE CONCEPT OF SELF AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE COUNSELING PROCESS

The psychological counselor today realizes that the elements of the counseling process must be founded on personality theory. Any counselor, regardless of his level of specialization, is aware of the fact that he is dealing with a *whole* personality, and not just a restricted trait or element of that personality. Theories of perception now emphasize that the total individual perceives in total patterns, and various studies on learning and personality emphasize the significance of the complete individual in the social situation. This section, therefore, is dedicated to a discussion of a "holoistic"¹ theory of personality and the relationship of this theory to the practical counseling process.

¹ A term attributed to W. H. Cowley.

Definition of the Self

When psychologists use the word "self," they assume first of all that the self is *not* the same as one's physical being. The self is thought of primarily as a psychological, and secondarily as a physical, entity. In this sense, the self could be characterized as psychobiological. Second, it is assumed that the psychological self develops as a result of the individual's experiences in life. In this sense, it is a *learned* construct. Third, it is assumed that it is this psychological self, and not the physical self, which fundamentally determines the ways in which man behaves.

Of the various definitions of the self, the one which appears most satisfactory to the authors and most commonly held is: *the individual's dynamic organization of concepts, values, goals, and ideals which determine the ways in which he should behave*. The self is the "I" or "me," or the "ego." It is the individual's "picture of himself," which provides him with hypotheses for meeting life (81).

Since the self is viewed as a *learned* constellation of past experiences, it is often referred to as the "concept of self," the "self-concept," or the "self-structure." This is because it is a psychological entity which the individual builds for himself in the process of growing up. It is this conceptual picture of himself which the individual uses as a criterion, or measuring stick, for future behavior.

The Development of the Self

When we define the self in this new fashion, it leads us to some new ways of thinking about the self and its development. For example, we may say that early in the child's life, he does not have any other self than his physical self—his bodily needs are his only concern. Soon, however, the child enlarges his concerns and learns to differentiate himself as a person, having ideas and concepts different from other people. Thus he begins to formulate his psychological self early in life. He begins to relate himself to his family, to his playmates, to his schoolmates, to his teachers, to his community. His self constantly grows and develops, ever widening its relationships. In this sense, we might say that the growth of the self is like an unfolding spiral, which constantly expands, embracing a widening sphere of interests, people, and ideas.

Perhaps the first evidence of the importance of the self's influence on behavior is indicated in the "first adolescence," or "negative stage," which generally comes between the ages of two and one-half and three and one-half. Here the child realizes for the first time that he has an individuality all his own, that he has ideas and motives all his own. He realizes that he, too, can say "no!"

The process by which learnings become part of the self is complex. Murphy suggests that there are at least six standards which children learn for the evaluation of appropriate or inappropriate ways of behaving: the law of God, public opinion, civil law, parental law, the greatest good of the greatest number, and the spirit in which the thing is done (123). All these standards are learned and become part of the individual's self. Many other factors are influential in the formulation of the self. Freud writes much of the role of early childhood experiences and the influence of parents and parental images in the formation of values (59). Tryon (185) and Havighurst (74) have shown how important peer groups and glamorous personages are in their influence on the individual's concepts and values. In other words, learning from past experience becomes a guide to future behavior.

As time goes on, learnings such as the above become abstracted and symbolized, becoming part of the self and serving as criteria for future behavior. The following examples illustrate the process by which various elements of the self are learned and how they become guides to future behavior:

1. A student experiences himself as a capable athlete. He feels a sense of acceptance by others when he performs athletic feats. These experiences become a part of him; he learns to regard himself as a superior, good, or fair athlete.
2. A young man experiences himself as being successful at his job. He learns to regard himself as a good provider, capable of raising a family.
3. A youngster in grade school is rewarded for his cooperative behavior. He comes to regard himself as a worth-while member of his peer culture.
4. A student experiences feelings of success in receiving A's in school. These experiences are abstracted into feelings of adequacy, and he comes to regard himself as having a high capacity for scholastic achievement.
5. A child is instructed by his parents from early childhood regarding "right" and "wrong." He learns that certain behaviors are morally wrong. These early parental standards eventually become the individual's standards in his evaluation of the appropriateness and inappropriateness of behavior.

Through numberless experiences, therefore, it can be seen that the concept of self develops. All these experiences integrate into the concept of self, and this construct becomes the individual's means for judging his own behavior. The self-concept comes to define the "I am" (his nature), the "I can" (his capacities), the "I should not" (his values), and the "I want to be" (his aspirations). When we say that the individual is the product of all his experiences, we mean that they become part of his concept of self.

Relation of Feelings to the Self

An investigation of the development of the self brings the realization that man is primarily an emotional being, guided more by feelings than by rational judgment. For it appears that the individual's self-regarding attitudes become intimately interwoven with his self-concept. It would appear, for example, that when a person behaves in harmony with his picture of himself, he feels *secure*, *adequate*, and *worthy*. On the other hand, when he experiences himself as behaving differently from the way in which he defines himself, he feels *insecure*, *inadequate*, and *worthless*. Examples illustrate:

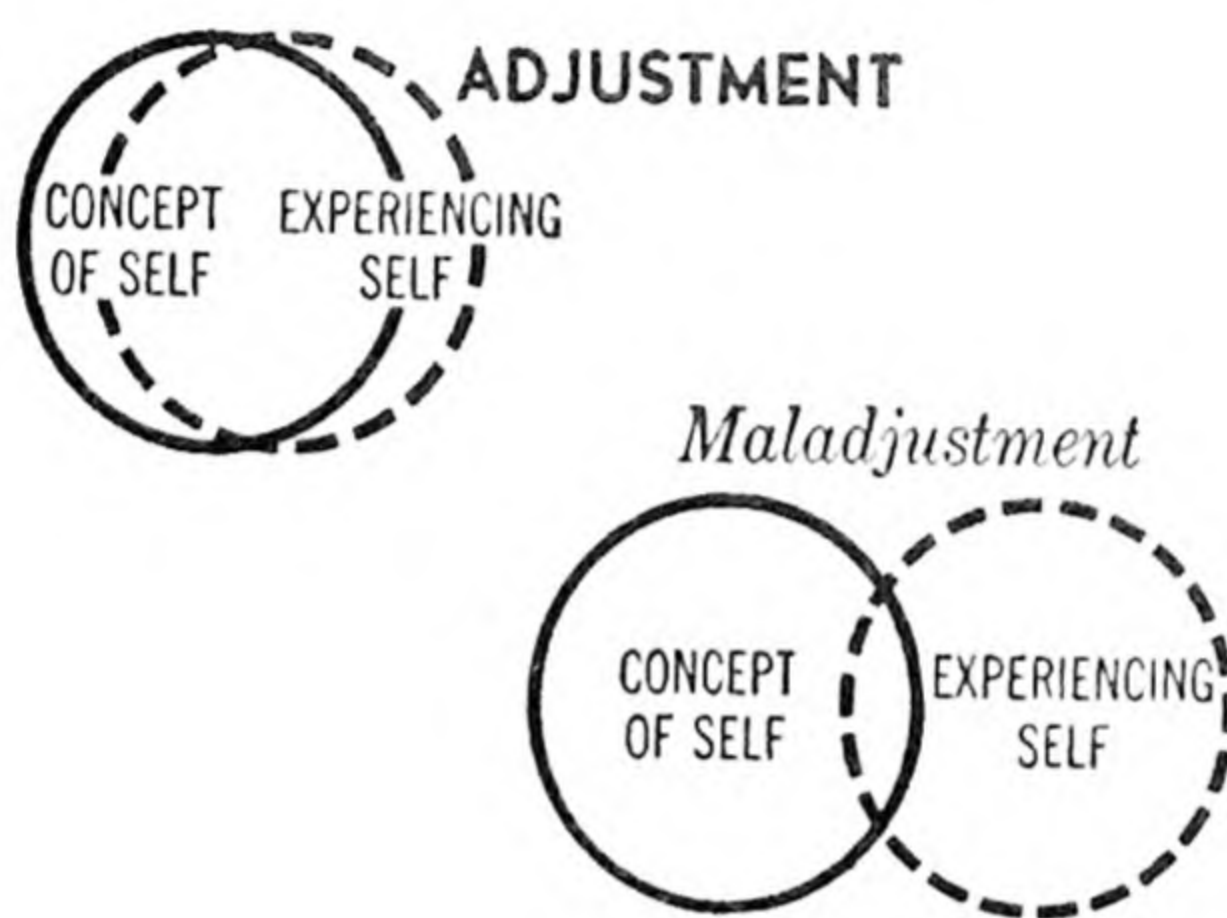
1. When a person experiences himself as working up to his *capacity*, he feels a sense of personal *adequacy*. He feels that he is making the most of himself.
2. When a person experiences himself "knowing where he stands" and "where he is going," he feels a sense of *security*.
3. When a person experiences himself as acting in accordance with his *values and ideals*, he feels a sense of personal *worth*.

Definition of "Adjustment" and "Maladjustment"

We may say, therefore, that a person is "adjusted," or is in good mental health, when he behaves in a manner consistent with his self-concept. The maladjusted person is a person who experiences himself behaving *inconsistently* with his learned constellation of values, capacities, goals, and ideals. Further, mental health is probably maintained by a continuous reevaluation and redefinition of capacities, goals, and values. This enables the individual to keep his self-perceptions in harmony with experience. This process of continuous reevaluation is the essential end of counseling which is self-adjustive.

Figure 1 illustrates this point. The individual is "adjusted" when his

"concept of self" is in relative harmony with his "experiencing self." The adjusted person continually revises his self-concept so as to keep it in relative harmony with experience. The maladjusted person, however, is one whose self-concept is in relative disharmony with his experiencing self. In other words, he experiences himself as behaving in certain ways, but these ways are not consistent with the values, concepts, and ideals he has set up for himself. Mental health, therefore, is not thought of as a state of living in complete harmony with self-concepts, but as a situation in which self and experience are in *relative* harmony.

FIG. 1.¹

When the individual perceives his behavior as being inconsistent with his picture of himself, feelings of anxiety occur. Expressions of such anxiety taken from actual interviews illustrate:

1. I don't stack up, and I'm cognizant of the fact that . . . I'm not learning what I should be and how much I should be.

This client experiences herself as not living up to her definition of her capacity. Feelings of inferiority, or *inadequacy*, are expressed.

2. I mean as one of my ideals I want social work very much; and, if I'm not going to be a social worker because of my personal difficulties, then I don't want to be one.

This individual experiences her performance as inconsistent with her life goals.

3. I want to love my mother and respect her as her son, but I just can't make myself.

This person sees himself as a loving son, but experiences do not bear out this concept.

¹ This figure is adapted from Rogers, pp. 526-527 in *Client-Centered Therapy*, and is used by permission.

4. I know I shouldn't do those things, but when I get a few beers in me, I seem to lose all my inhibitions.

Experiencing his behavior as inconsistent with moral standards or values creates feelings of anxiety.

Counseling and the Self

A student who comes for counseling is one who is experiencing a measure of anxiety, as illustrated above. This anxiety is present because the individual's perception of his experiences is contradictory to his current organization of capacities, goals, and ideals. His first reaction to this situation is to deny or distort the experience, since reorganization of self or experience is a difficult and painful process. Hilgard suggests that the so-called "defense mechanisms" are man's way of disguising or denying experience so as to maintain his present self-concept (79). The following are examples of such mechanisms:

Denial

My friends tell me that I can make it, but I just know inside that I can't. I just freeze up when I take exams.

Here the attitudes of the client's friends are inconsistent with his self-concept, and they are met with denial or nonacceptance.

Distortion

I don't see why I should have to go to school for five years to become a teacher. It just isn't worth the effort.

This client is distorting the nature of the issue so as to maintain present self-perceptions.

Justification

I just have to join a fraternity if I want to get on the inside track.

Here the client reasons in support of the consistency of his own perception of an issue

Rationalization

I can't get along with her, but she doesn't seem to get along well with other students, either.

Here the client reasons in support of the consistency of his own perceptions.

Projection

The reason I don't like math is because of that third-grade teacher I had—she made me dislike it.

Here the client attributes to another person the cause of an attribute perceived as part of himself.

It appears that many of the "problems" which people describe in counseling are distortions of experience. Probably most problems of vocational choice, marital difficulty, religious conflicts, etc., can be reduced to inconsistencies between perceived behavior or experience and self-definitions. It seems, further, that when this is the situation behavior is characterized by anxiety and defensiveness.

If the foregoing is true, it would seem logical that the counseling process be a situation in which the individual be given an opportunity to express himself freely, so that such inconsistencies can be examined and reevaluated. This is why the first step in counseling should be a "cathartic" period. Feelings must be expressed verbally so that they may be viewed realistically. In this period of emotional release, the client is able to see himself more clearly. He discovers the false reasoning behind his defense mechanisms and he examines the experiences of which he has not been aware—experiences which are contradictory to current perceptions of himself. Out of all this exploration, he moves to reorganize a "new self," based upon all of his experiences perceived without distortion. Elements of what were formerly defense mechanisms now become *insights*:

1. I know now that I fear failure . . . but, if I do fail it won't kill me.
2. I guess anything that is worth while takes a lot of work. I just haven't realized this.
3. I guess I just wanted to join a fraternity so I'd get a feeling of importance.
4. If neither of us are able to get along with others, maybe we both need help.
5. There's no use blaming my poor math grades on anyone—the important thing is that I make the best of my present situation.

Counseling, therefore, may be defined as an attempt by a counselor to create a permissive situation in which the client may reevaluate his experiences and so bring the self into closer harmony with experience. It is characterized by a change from negative or disapproving feelings

(feelings of insecurity, inadequacy, and worthlessness) to positive feelings toward self (feelings of security, adequacy, and worth).

Relation of the Self to Student Personnel Counseling

When students come for counseling, we find that they manifest the same sort of anxiety and defense described above. It appears, therefore, that the first requirement of such counseling is that the student's defenses be relaxed. It is suggested that this can be facilitated by two means:

1. *A group orientation* (see Chapter 5). In such an orientation, students can come to understand the nature of the counseling process. They will come for counseling less on the defensive and more prepared to discuss their problems.
2. *A permissive counseling approach* (see Chapter 8). In self-adjustive counseling, students are allowed the opportunity to verbalize their feelings. In other words, counselors must recognize that most types of counseling problems require a reevaluation of self-ideals and goals.

The problems of vocational or educational counseling, therefore, do not simply reduce to an analysis of a person's abilities or interests and an analysis of the requirements for various jobs. Shaffer states: "The predispositions to vocational maladjustments are the same as those underlying any other class of maladjustment" (157, p. 517). This is why self-adjustive counseling proceeds in a clinical fashion, giving the client opportunity for exploration of self and experience.

The elements of the self which are most closely related to counseling of a vocational or educational nature are those involving the individual's goals. Snygg and Combs recognize the relationship of goals to the self-concept:

Depending upon the concept of self possessed by the individual, *he will choose this goal or that as appropriate for such a person as he regards himself to be*. The man who regards himself as a pretty good bookkeeper probably does not set a goal for himself to be president of the United States, nor does the successful physician adopt as a goal for himself retirement to a comfortable job as garbage collector. Whatever goals are considered worthy of the individual's consideration are dependent upon the ways in which he regards himself (165, p. 101).

Chapman and Volkmann also emphasize the relationship of goals to the total self. They write that "level of aspiration . . . may be

regarded as a special case of the effect upon a judgment of the frame of reference within which it is executed" (30).

These authors, in a revealing study, found that one's frame of reference determined the nature of one's goals. People, for example, when told that WPA workers worked at a certain level, always raised their level of aspiration above this mark. In other words, their self-concepts determined that they *must* be superior to the "lowly" WPA worker.

That goals and aspirations are important facets of one's self-concept is clearly indicated in the Stanford Guidance Study (162). Despite the fact that a student *knew* that over 40,000 types of jobs existed in the United States, his concept of himself, as a member of a certain family, as a student at Stanford, as a member of a particular "class" of society, made it impossible for him to consider any other than three occupations: doctor, lawyer, or engineer. As far as his occupational goals went, there just weren't any alternatives. The individual's experiences and background, and their influence on his aspirations, is quite evident.

It seems clear that a major part of student personnel counseling must center about the reorganization of self, goals, and aspirations. It is probable that one's self-definitions *restrict* one's aspirations; this is why it is so important that self-reorganization take place before more realistic aspirations be set. Furthermore, it appears that experiences, such as school grades and job experiences, must be explored and examined along with self-concepts. Defense mechanisms will have to be frankly examined. Examples are:

1. I'm getting C's now, but I still think I can get into med school. A doctor doesn't have to know too much about chemistry or biology.
2. Gosh, I want to be a professional man, and a college education will do that for me.
3. I didn't like working in a machine shop because I consider that unskilled labor. But I'll do O.K. as an engineer.

In the exploration of self and experience, it would appear that there are tools and techniques of counseling which can assist the student in his process of examining and redefining his capacities and goals. Occupational information and aptitude- and interest-test scores can be utilized in this process. Insights like the following may develop from skillful use of such materials and techniques:

1. Gee, my grades and that scholastic-aptitude test make me think that maybe I'm shooting too high.
2. Only 5 per cent of men get into professional jobs, eh? I guess some of us aren't going to make it.
3. It looks like there are many more skills than I ever thought of involved in being a good engineer.

Chapters 6 and 8 deal with the utilization of test, occupational information, and other personal data in student personnel counseling. The foregoing suggests that such informational techniques can be utilized effectively in self-reorganization. The Case of Jim Welch, at the end of Chapter 8, illustrates a counseling situation in which there is a reorganization of self facilitated by skillful use of informational techniques.

EVOLVING VIEWPOINTS IN COUNSELING TECHNIQUE

An analysis of the points of view of writers in the field of counseling methodology shows a definite trend toward a greater realization of the importance of dealing with the client as a *person* rather than as a *problem*. Perhaps differences in point of view which have been expressed by various writers can be most sharply illustrated by references to the controversy regarding directive and nondirective frames of reference. These two approaches, directive and nondirective, both seek to achieve the goal of aiding the individual in the quality of his adjustment. Beyond this agreement in purpose, however, there are sharp differences in means or methods employed.

In the directive approach, the most important role is played by the counselor; in the nondirective, by the client. In the first, the direction of the interview is determined by the counselor; of most importance is the problem, the determination of its cause, and treatment. In contrast, nondirective counseling focuses its attention on the client, and counseling is aimed at helping him to develop satisfactory adjustment by himself. In directive counseling, intellectual interpretation is the central technique. In nondirective counseling, the central technique is release of feelings and achievement of insights by the client.

According to Darley, counseling of other than the directive-type is hardly appropriate. He writes: "Beware of the student who discusses his problem freely and who comes back periodically for a good heart-

to-heart talk, but who, between interviews, does nothing to help himself and does not follow out suggestions. Such cases can seldom be helped" (45, p. 178).

Other advocates of the directive type of counseling are Bingham and Moore, who suggest three major functions of counseling: to give information, to secure information, and to influence or motivate the counselee (16).

Erickson and Smith, in discussing the conduct of the counseling interview, suggest: "Make the problem stand out, and encourage the counselee to discuss it" (54, p. 118).

Another writer in the field of guidance suggests the following: "Keep control of the interview, but guide it unobtrusively. Work steadily toward the objective without dawdling; the interview is not a social visit; confine discussion to issues at hand. When necessary, ask a question or make a suggestion that will guide the conversation back to the problem" (92, p. 275).

Historically the directive or counselor-centered approach has been perhaps best characterized in Williamson's book *How to Counsel Students*. He writes: "Ordinarily, the counselor states his point of view with *definiteness*, attempting through exposition to *enlighten* the student" (206, p. 136). Darley, in a 1943 publication, expresses the same point of view: "The interview seems somewhat similar to a sales situation, since the counselor attempts to sell the student certain ideas about himself, certain plans of action, or certain desirable changes in attitudes" (45, p. 169).

Another adherent of the directive approach in counseling is Thorne, who writes as follows:

In our opinion, the possibility of a completely nondirective method is nonexistent since by the very nature of the therapist-client relationship (*a*) the client comes to a therapist considered to be of superior experience and training which thereby establishes a relationship of dominance through prestige, (*b*) the therapist determines the method to be used, and (*c*) what happens in the therapeutic relationship must be evaluated not only in terms of what the therapist thinks he is doing, but also in terms of what the therapy means to the patient (179, p. 161).

The prime assumption of the directive school, as implied by foregoing viewpoints, is that the counselor, with his background of training, is best qualified to understand the student's problems. The coun-

selor is the expert, and high value is placed on his diagnostic ability. The technique consists generally of (1) gathering of information by the counselor, (2) diagnosis of the student's problems on the basis of this information, and (3) conveying the appropriate solutions to the client by rational means, thereby getting him to adopt the counselor's plan of action.

It will be noted that in this kind of counseling the responsibility for the solution of the problem lies with the counselor. The counselor, therefore, directs and controls the interview in the manner he decides is best. His method consists of techniques such as (1) questioning, (2) reassurance, (3) criticism-negative evaluation, (4) interpretation and suggestion, and (5) advice and persuasion.

The major emphasis of the directivists seems to rest in doing things *for* the student, in doing things *to* the student, or in manipulating "forces" that impinge upon the student from *without*.

In between the directive school and the nondirective or client-centered school, we have a number of writers who have chosen to take the "middle-of-the-road" position. Hahn and Kendall, for example, recognize the contributions of both types of counseling, but stress the need for more research on the problem (70). E. S. Jones, in an article entitled "Gradations of Directiveness in Counseling," writes that there is a time for nondirective counseling and also a time for the directive approach (93). He believes that a combination of the two is often best.

Covner believes that much effective vocational counseling can be done by the traditional methods, but recommends the use of client-centered techniques because he believes this method is superior for handling the emotional complications involved (37). Combs also has taken a rather indefinite position. He says that directive methods may be used when the primary need is for information and that nondirective methods may be used when the primary need is for social or emotional adjustment (34).

In opposition to the above philosophies, Rogers asks a thought-provoking question (140, p. 209): "Is the facilitation of better adjustment, which I take is the goal of all of us, a matter of doing something *to* and *for* the individual, or is it a matter of providing the conditions under which he can help himself?" He says:

The directive counselor selects the desirable and the socially approved goal which the client is to attain, and then directs his efforts toward helping the subject to attain it. Nondirective counseling is based on the assumption that

the client has the right to select his own life goals, even though these may be at variance with the goals that the counselor might choose for him . . . the nondirective viewpoint places a high value on the right of every individual to be psychologically independent and to maintain his psychological integrity. The directive viewpoint places a high value on social conformity and the right of the more able to direct the less able (139, pp. 126-127).

In contradistinction to directive counseling, Rogers defines client-centered counseling as a "definitely structured relationship, highly permissive in nature, in which the client finds an opportunity to explore, freely and without defensiveness, his difficulties and the emotionalized attitudes which surround them" (138, p. 155). The purpose of this type of counseling is to assist the client himself in establishing better ways of adjusting. It is the counselor's interested acceptance of the client's beginning reactions which initiates the therapeutic process.

Meister and Miller describe the dynamics of this type of counseling:

Nondirective psychotherapy may be considered an attempt on the part of the counselor to offer the client a new type of experience wherein his cycle of unusual responses may be disrupted since the counselor does not supply the reinforcement by rejection which other social contacts have provided. . . . It is the counseling situation itself which initiates the process of establishing new modes of reaction, and it is only to the extent that the counselor is able to accept the client and to convey the fact of his acceptance to the client that he can act as a therapeutic agent (117, p. 62).

In the nondirective client-centered relationship, the client experiences a social bond which is different from any type of relationship previously experienced. Rogers describes this experience:

The counseling relationship is one in which warmth of acceptance and absence of any coercion or personal pressure on the part of the counselor permits the maximum expression of feelings, attitudes and problems by the counslee. The relationship is a well-structured one, with limits of time, of dependence, and of aggressive action which apply particularly to the client, and limits of responsibility and of affection which the counselor imposes on himself. In this unique experience of complete emotional freedom within a well-defined framework, the client is free to recognize and understand his impulses and patterns, positive and negative, as in no other relationship (139, pp. 113-114).

In a good client-centered counseling relationship, the counselor is thus able, by creating a helpful counseling atmosphere, to assist the

client in becoming aware of his deeper feelings and attitudes and in accepting them as part of himself. Meister and Miller emphasize, however, that such an atmosphere cannot be created directly:

By defining and verbally emphasizing the permissiveness and client-centered aspects of the relationship rather than helping the counselee to *experience* them, to recognize and appreciate them, the counselor creates a *non-accepting situation*, a situation which has little therapeutic value, one which defeats his purposes of facilitating the free flow of feeling [*italics ours*] (117, p. 63).

Curran characterizes the effect of permissive counseling on the client as follows:

The counseling situation . . . must allow the client an experience in reality which he takes on his own responsibility, which is at the same time a gradual seeing of himself objectively through the clarifications of the counselor. . . . Probably the most fundamental part of this process is the client's slow acquisition of the understanding that he can both be himself, admit his hostile feelings and failures without defensiveness and at the same time feel assured that he will have the counselor's continued acceptance and that he can achieve, with the aid of the counselor's skill, an independent solution of his problems (43, p. 216).

Blocksma, a student of Rogers, has coined a term which differentiates well the nondirective approach from the directive. He says that in directive counseling, the "locus of evaluation" is in the counselor; he is the one who plans and utilizes what he regards as suitable measures to bring about eventual adjustment for the student (140, p. 213). The implications for the client when the "locus of evaluation" is in the counselor must be considered. For example, it would seem to lead first to the client's loss of confidence in himself. The individual comes to believe that only the "expert" can evaluate him and that only the "expert" can solve his problems. As a result of these feelings, dependency appears, and the counselor becomes the shoulder to cry on whenever the client is confronted with the slightest problem.

Nondirective counseling is characterized, on the other hand, by thinking not *about* or *for* the individual but *with* him. It places emphasis on the *forces within the individual*, rather than on the forces without. It places emphasis on adjustment of the individual by himself, not by the counselor.

In client-centered counseling, the "locus of evaluation" is in the

client. Rogers states that "the function of responsible integration of knowledge, the evaluation of self, the function of responsible choice, of planning, of taking action—all of these evaluative activities are lodged with the client, and he is respected as the person upon whom they rest" (140, p. 213).

In recent years, a significant swing toward client-centeredness in counseling has been apparent. Evidence of this trend is noted even in the writings and views of Williamson and Darley. Williamson, in a recent article (205) has changed his views considerably. His article is much less directive than his book *How to Counsel Students*. Also, Williamson's more recent book, *Counseling Adolescents*, (204), espouses a less directive approach. Darley, in a 1946 publication, just three years after his book in which he likened counseling to a "sales situation," changed his views considerably (46). Whereas in the 1942 book stress is laid on persuading and explaining, the stress in the latter publication is on helping the client learn for himself and on the restraint of the counselor. He writes: "Whenever the interviewer starts to impose his ideas on the client, it would be well for him to beware of his own inclinations to dominate" (46, p. 9).

Why the change in viewpoints? What is behind this trend? The following are some of the factors which have contributed to this swing toward client-centeredness:

1. Counselors have found that, even if they do arrive at a perfect diagnosis, solutions without insight are worthless, and insight cannot be handed over ready-made to a client. Super, for example, writes: "As many other counselors have long known, and as Rogers has effectively reminded us, the insight-gaining processes of the counselee are affective and not cognitive, they are emotional rather than rational" (175, p. 5).

2. Counselors have come to realize that probing just doesn't get all the facts needed for a clear-cut diagnosis. Even the most skillful questioning and probing, supplemented by all other available information, often fails to produce the data necessary for a truly valid diagnosis.

3. Counselors have come to realize that counseling is a *learning situation* involving growth and not a teaching one. A person just cannot be taught self-adjustment.

4. Counselors have found that they cannot *sell* a solution to someone with a problem. The client must sell himself. More than that, he must *digest*, *internalize*, that solution if it is going to be meaningful to him; this he must do himself.

5. Finally, counselors believe this approach to be completely in harmony with the best in democratic philosophy. Rogers writes: "This whole approach toward dealing with problems of adjustment may be seen to be a thorough-going and detailed implementation of a philosophy of respect for the individual as a person with the right to and capacity for self-understanding, self-evaluation, and self-determination" (140, p. 214).

It would appear that the basic assumptions of democracy and those of client-centered therapy are one and the same; that the individual has the right to make his own decisions and that each individual has the *capacity* for constructive handling of his life problems are certainly tenets of democracy as well as of client-centeredness.

THE VIEWPOINT OF THIS BOOK

The process of counseling to be described in this book employs attitudinal techniques which would ordinarily be described as permissive and client-centered. It also employs informational techniques, pertaining to both the individual and the environment, when the client expresses need for such aids for problem solving, when these data meet the *felt need* of the client. As indicated in Chapter 1, this approach is distinguished from that which is known as "client-centered." The term "self-adjustive" is employed to describe this broader approach.

It is the view of the authors that the self-adjustive approach to counseling cannot simply be placed somewhere in the middle of the directive-nondirective continuum. Rather, it might be viewed as existing on a third plane—as a third point in a triangle, as follows:

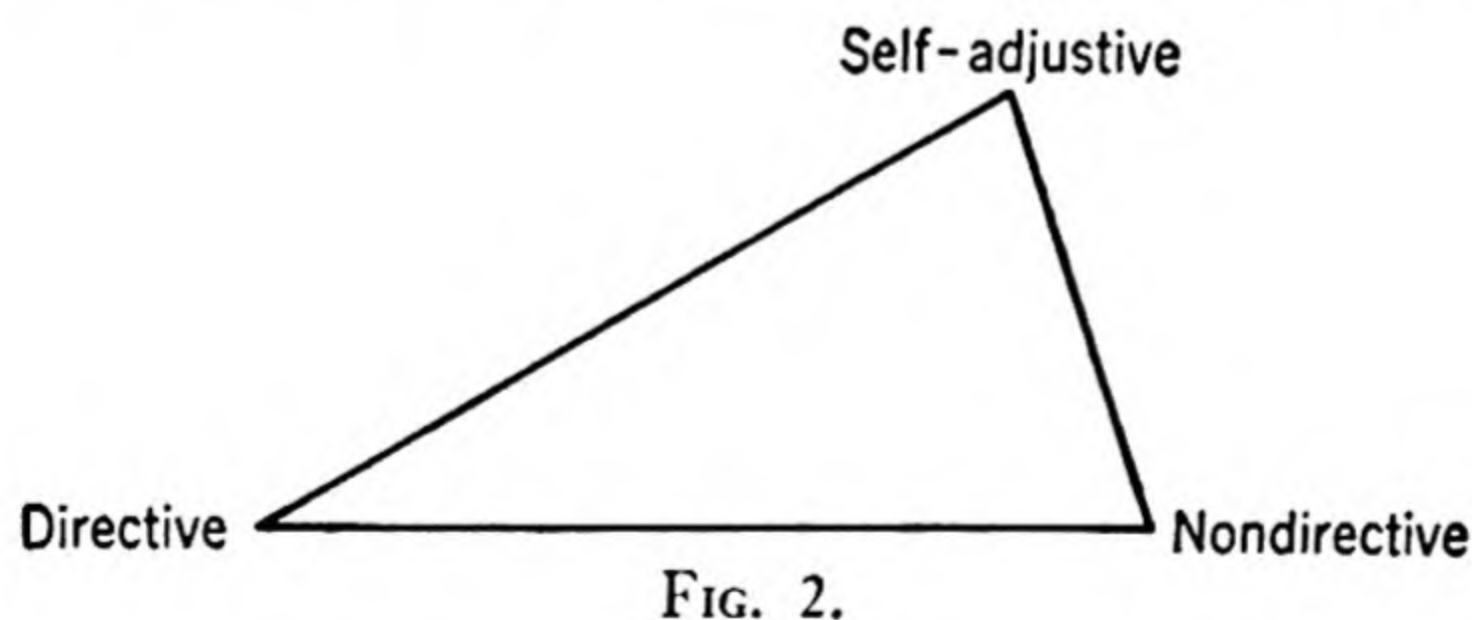


FIG. 2.

It will be noted that the above diagram is not dissimilar to that of Lewin's description of democratic vs. autocratic and laissez-faire atmospheres (105). Democracy is not simply a middle point somewhere between autocracy and *laissez-faire*. Likewise, the self-adjustive position is not merely a middle-ground position. The above should not be construed to mean, however, that the directive and nondirective positions

correspond to autocracy or *laissez faire*. What it does attempt to show, however, is that the self-adjustive position is something *more* than just an eclectic view.

Just what is the self-adjustive view? The views of Chapter 1 will be reiterated and expanded here. It is posited that this approach could be described best not as directive, not as nondirective, but as self-directive. By this it is meant that counseling operates from a *consistent* philosophical frame of reference—a frame of reference which says, in effect, “All the activities of the counseling process must be directed toward one consistent goal: the self-direction and self-realization of the client.” This means, furthermore, that all counseling activities are facilitated by a permissive, accepting, client-centered *relationship*. Within this frame of reference, however, it is not only possible but desirable to use certain informational devices (records, tests, occupational information) to assist the client in perceiving problems concerned with client goals. In other words, information is used, but only for the ultimate goal of client self-realization. This means, moreover, that this information is used only in a permissive frame of reference, that the information is not used until it is *desired* by the client. An analogy of planning a trip across the country may clarify this position.

Let us say that the goal of the client is somewhere on the East Coast, in New York. He is presently in San Francisco. He comes for counseling. Both client and the counselor are cognizant of the fact that only the client can make this trip. Very often in counseling, thru client-centered procedures, the client makes himself *emotionally* capable of making this trip by himself. At some point in counseling, however, the client may feel that he is to make the trip by himself, but that it might be valuable for him if he could get some information concerning the condition of his vehicle, roads, climate, etc. No one would doubt the necessity for such information for intelligent problem solving. Therefore, the counselor and his client consider *interests* and *aptitudes* (corresponding to the nature of the client's *vehicle*) and occupational and other types of *information* (corresponding to *climatic conditions*). In other words, the client, with the aid of this information, considers alternatives and possible consequences. He realizes, of course, that eventually he must take the *responsibility* for whatever decisions he makes.

It is believed that the above position is more than a question of how the counselor acts in a counseling situation. It involves a consideration

of goals in counseling and of means to accomplish these goals. It grants the necessity for a consistent frame of reference, and yet subsumes information into this frame of reference without a violation of the basic assumptions of the self-adjustive viewpoint. Its focus is on the client and his striving for adjustment even though information is employed at appropriate times.

The principle of "timing" or "striking when the iron is hot" is basic. It isn't only a problem of *what* the housewife puts in the cake, but *when* and *how* it is put in. Likewise, it is more of a problem of employing information when it is accepted and used constructively than a matter of use or not use.

Perhaps another way to distinguish the self-adjustive approach from the directive and nondirective approaches would be to express in words the attitudes that counselors with these viewpoints would express only *covertly* in the interview. For example, the directive counselor says, in effect, to his client, "You can use this information or not, but it's probably a good idea since it will help you to make your decision." The nondirective counselor's attitude could be characterized as follows: "You feel that tests would be useful, but they probably won't be." The self-adjustive counselor's attitude would be verbalized as follows: "Sometimes tests and information assist toward the solution of one's problems, and sometimes they don't; if you feel you would like this assistance, it can be arranged."

SUMMARY

This section has described the development of the self-concept and has shown how this construct provides a basis for the understanding of human behavior. It has suggested that the counseling process should be structured in such a way as to assist the individual in the reorganization and reevaluation of self and experience. It has further suggested that self-adjustive techniques, such as client-centered structuring and accepting counselor attitudes, can assist in this process. Finally, it has suggested that information techniques can be utilized at appropriate times to help the individual in examining these capacities and goals and his world of reality. Such techniques, however, must not be regarded as *ends* in themselves but as *means* by which the process of self-reorganization can be facilitated.

Chapter 3

SELF-ADJUSTIVE COUNSELING: LAYING THE FOUNDATIONS

Perhaps the greatest danger in the field of counseling and therapy is the desire of counselors for a rigid recipe of steps to follow in counseling. The authors are well aware of this dangerous desire for oversimplification of counseling. Therefore, before proceeding to a presentation of the phases of self-adjustive counseling, consideration will be given to several additional concepts which relate to the theoretical, conceptual framework developed in the preceding chapter. It is felt that the concepts in this chapter, together with the ideas of Chapter 2, will provide the counselor with a background against which to place the elements of the counseling process in proper perspective. This will also diminish the danger of regarding the process of counseling to be described in the following chapters as encompassing and rigid.

The major topics covered are the psychological climate in the interview, the internal frame of reference, and learning and problem solving in counseling.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CLIMATE IN THE INTERVIEW

Skills vs. Attitudes

Rogers (142) and others have pointed out that training in counseling involves two separate aspects: (1) training in attitude and (2) training in skills. They have pointed out also that much training of counselors in recent years has completely neglected the former area. Some writers have warned of the dangers of projecting one's own attitudes into the counseling process. For example, educational sociologists such as Warner (198) warn us that we as counselors must be careful not to project our own middle-class standards on our clients.

Psychological Climate and Self-regarding Attitudes

A more positive approach to the problem of attitudes in counseling is presented by Porter (129). He states that a new avenue for control of attitudes of the counselor comes from (1) knowing precisely the nature of the techniques one uses; and (2) understanding one's techniques in terms of the psychological climate they create.

The above discussion necessitates some definitions (129):

1. *Psychological climate*: such actions and attitudes of others which hold for the individual implications as to his value as a person.
2. *Self-regarding attitudes*: attitudes regarding the worth, competence, capability, guilt, or other such qualities of oneself as a person.

Porter indicates that the attitudes of the counselor create in the interview "psychological climate," which in turn holds for the individual either positive or negative "self-regarding attitudes." This could be diagrammed as in Figure 3.

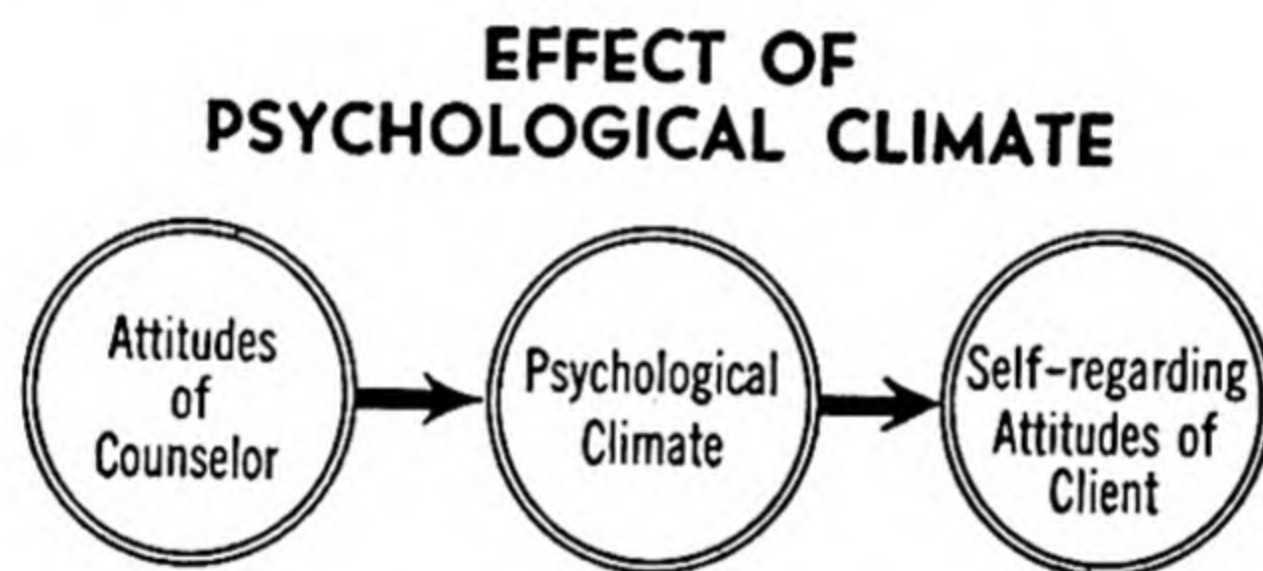


FIG. 3.

In other words, by self-regarding attitudes are meant such feelings about self as the individual learns as a result of his relationship with the counselor. By psychological climate is meant such actions and attitudes as the counselor displays which hold for the client implications as to his value as a person.

For example, Porter demonstrates how important psychological climate is in the training of children (129, p. 46):

MOTHER: Johnny, go to the bathroom. You're squirming around like a Whirling Dervish.

JOHNNY: No.

MOTHER: Go on! You have to go, don't you?

JOHNNY: No.

MOTHER: Well, go anyway.

JOHNNY: I don't want to.

MOTHER: Now go on before you have an accident.

JOHNNY: I'll get a hatchet and chop you all up.

MOTHER: Why, Johnny, that's a terrible thing to say. You wouldn't really want to hurt me, would you?

JOHNNY: Yes.

MOTHER: Now, this is silly. You just march yourself on into the bathroom this instant.

In addition to the obvious lesson in bladder control, Johnny has had some lessons in emotionalized attitudes: (1) the responsibility for initiating action lies with the mother; (2) his own ideas are brushed aside and disregarded; (3) expression of his feelings of hostility are condemned. In brief, the situation has been loaded with lessons in dependency, inadequacy, worthlessness, and guilt.

As another example, it has been demonstrated that a counselor may be a master at the techniques involved in client-centered therapy; he may be able to reflect feeling accurately and without difficulty. On the other hand, if he is looking out the window, answering the phone, or cleaning his fingernails when in conference with the client, these actions create a climate which says, in effect, to the client, "This guy doesn't have any interest in you, nor does he think your problems are important." Many times, the attitudes of the counselor are very subtle and hard to recognize, but no one would doubt that there is *always* in the interview a *climate* which holds implications for the client as to his value as a person.

Porter also provides an example of how good psychological climate can be created in the interview (130, p. 60):

COUNSELOR: I don't believe I know much about why you are here. The Dean mentioned you some time ago, but I know very little about it.

FRANK: Well, the Dean and Professor R. wanted me to see you. They said you were a good psychologist, and that if you studied me you might be able to diagnose my adjustment. They think I'm not getting along very well, and if you diagnosed what was the matter, you would be able to help me.

COUNSELOR: They think you need some help, and you're trying to do what they wish?

FRANK: Well, they say I'm not doing as well as I should, and if you studied me, you could say why.

COUNSELOR: Well, now I'll tell you, Frank, I really haven't had much luck helping students with problems that the Deans think they have. I don't

know whether I can be of help to you along that line or not. When a student is concerned about some problem that he thinks he has, then frequently we can work out something together, but otherwise, I don't believe I get very far. I wonder, quite aside from what the Dean thinks about you, whether you feel there is anything about your situation that is causing you concern?

FRANK: Well, I don't know—I suppose I don't live up to my ability.

COUNSELOR: That is something you feel a little concerned about?

FRANK: Yes. I don't know, I guess I procrastinate; I just don't get things done on time. I don't see why. I've thought about that a lot and tried to analyze it but I don't seem to have helped it.

COUNSELOR: So you feel you really do procrastinate, and that you've been unable to do anything about it.

Increasing numbers of counselors, finding themselves in accord with the notion that attitudes are important in counseling, are desirous of creating the proper psychological climate in the interview. However, it has been difficult for many counselors to carry this concept out in the interviewing situation.

Three Basic Attitudes

Rogers (136) and others, in training counselors, have found that there are essentially three classifications of attitudes which, when adopted by the counselor, create the desirable climate in the interview to foster the individual's "self-actualization"¹ and to create positive self-regarding attitudes in the client. These counselor attitudes are shown in Figure 4 and may be defined in the following terms.

3 BASIC ATTITUDES

- 1 Acceptance**
- 2 Permissiveness**
- 3 Belief in capacity of individual for self-direction**

FIG. 4.

1. Acceptance. There are many definitions of the attitude, but the one maintained by the authors is as follows: a positive attitude toward the individual, which accepts the client as a person of worth and dignity and which holds for him the right to make his own decisions and choices.

¹ A term developed by Kurt Goldstein (63).

Contrary to the misconceptions of many, this attitude is *not* an attitude of *approval* of or *sympathy* for the client. It does mean that the counselor says through his attitudes, "I neither approve nor disapprove, *but I do accept your right to be different.*" It is interesting to note also how close this attitude is to the basic tenets of democracy. Is this not simply an attempt to put into one's behavior respect for the worth and dignity of the individual?

2. *Permissiveness.* Again, there is much disagreement as to the meaning of this term, but the present authors define this attitude as follows: a *nonjudgmental* attitude which permits the client to direct the interview in whatever manner he chooses and to express whatever he desires but maintains for him the freedom to withhold whatever he desires as well.

This attitude also is an implementation of the democratic tenet which again places faith in the rights of the individual. It places the emphasis where it belongs—on the rights of the individual, rather than on his limits! Counselors, especially in the public schools, often express this attitude toward little children: that their rights, like the rights of little countries, are not important. Yet, in diplomatic relations, we are finding that the big countries are often those which do not always know best. Is it possible that this is so in schools, also? Perhaps, if counselors would concentrate less on the limitations of students and more on the limitations of test data, the quality of guidance would improve.

3. *Confidence in the Capacity of the Individual for Self-direction.* This could be defined as an expression in the counselor's attitude of his conviction that the individual is or can become capable of managing his own life.

It will be admitted that in extreme cases this confidence is not warranted, but such cases are generally the province of the psychiatrist. On the other hand, we as counselors are sometimes prone to be skeptical of the individual's capacities. The writers have observed that high-school counselors often use "irresponsibility" of students as their excuse for being directive. Yet when we examine the facts, we find that in the last war it was these same irresponsible kids who piloted our air forces to supremacy and it was the same incompetent eighteen-year-olds who led our infantry platoons to victory in Germany and in the South Pacific. Figure 5 may be helpful in this connection.

It will be noted in connection with Figure 5 that a child is in a state of utter helplessness at birth. Unless his parents, and especially his mother, take full charge of his life, the child will die. On the other hand, training of the child begins as soon as he is born, and it would appear that this training should be constantly oriented toward creating the kind of atmosphere in which the child becomes increasingly self-responsible and the parents become increasingly less responsible for the life of the child. Somewhere, perhaps at the age of eleven or twelve, the balance of responsibility between parent and child will be equal. The question the writers would raise is: "At what age do we expect

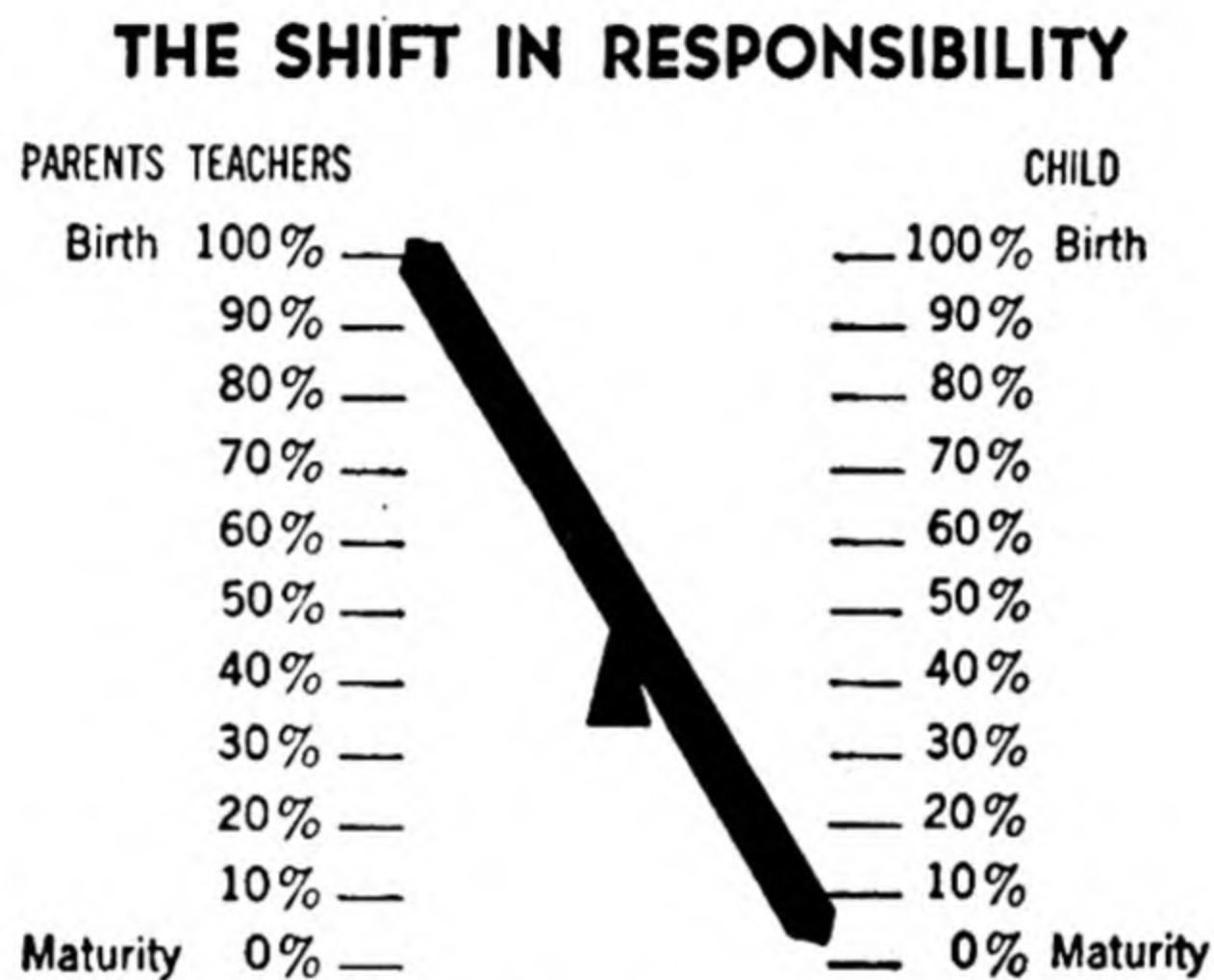


FIG. 5.

that the balance of power should be completely reversed from that shown in Figure 5?" A little thinking on this question would probably result in the conclusion that at the age of graduation from high school, around the age of eighteen to twenty-one, the child should be self-responsible. At this age, he should be able to take care of himself in the world. And yet, how many teachers and counselors in high schools today are fostering this self-direction, and how many students have actually been well-prepared for managing their own lives? Going out into the world for many students is comparable to being thrown in the water for the first time without having yet learned to swim.

The moral which this illustration holds for the counselor is that perhaps his many functions should be regarded as an endeavor to foster and develop each student's capacity for becoming self-directive and self-adjustive. This can be done to a large degree by the counselor's expression of attitude toward the student in the interview.

THE INTERNAL FRAME OF REFERENCE

The attitudes which have been discussed in the last section and which are so essential toward creating the proper psychological climate in the interview have recently been integrated into a new concept, which has been called "the internal frame of reference" (142). This term is an attempt to describe the attitudinal set which seems to be most fruitful in creating the sort of climate in the interview which is conducive to self-direction. The internal frame of reference could be defined as the continuous attempt by the counselor in the interview to perceive the world as the client sees it, to perceive the client as he sees himself.

When one assumes the internal frame of reference, one makes a genuine and sincere effort to "get inside the skin of the person with whom he is communicating . . . to get within and to live the attitudes expressed instead of observing them" (142, p. 86).

In an effort to clarify this concept, the authors have devised the four diagrams in Figure 6 to illustrate what is meant when one assumes this attitude.

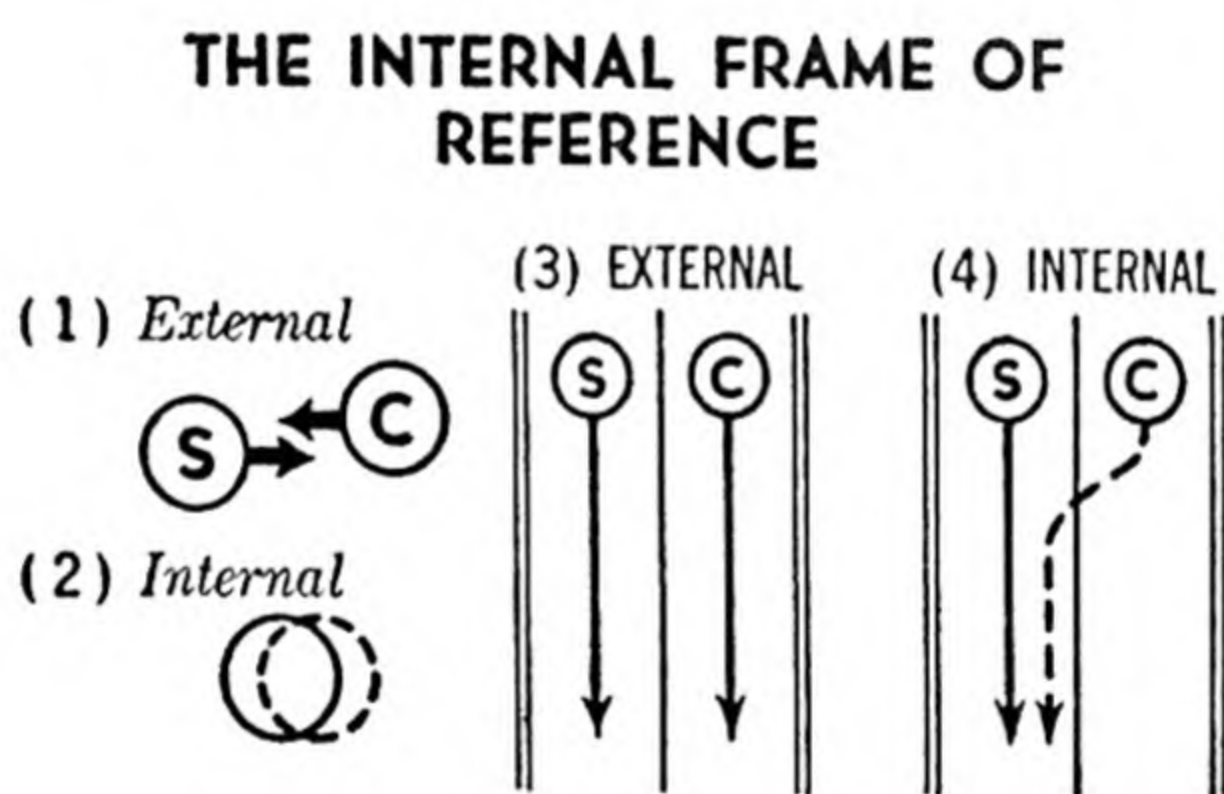


FIG. 6.

A person is in the "external frame of reference" when he is engaged in the typical situation involving ordinary social interaction. In the counseling situation, it would be diagramed as in Figure 6(1). The counselor (C) listens and talks; the subject or student (S) listens and talks. The counselor's perceptions of the client are formed exclusively on the basis of his own training and experience. He is concentrating on the information which the client is giving to him, the meaning of it, and the probable diagnosis—from the counselor's point of view.

When the counselor assumes the internal frame of reference, how-

ever, he has no concern about making a diagnosis, so can give himself completely to understanding the client and seeing the situation as it appears to the client. As mentioned previously, he literally tries to "get inside the skin" of the client and to understand what is said in terms of the client's experiences rather than his own. Figure 6(2) illustrates this.

In Figure 6(3), the "external frame of reference" is diagramed in another manner. Here, the counseling situation is likened to a street—a dynamic, moving situation, where the student travels down his lane of experience and the counselor down his lane. As the counselor decides the proper diagnosis for the problem, he attempts to get the client to come over into his lane, to accept intellectually the counselor-determined diagnosis of the problem.

Figure 6(4) illustrates what happens when the counselor assumes the internal frame. Instead of going down his own lane of travel and attempting to get the client to go down his lane, the counselor attempts to get over into the lane of the client, to move in the direction of the client's thinking and feeling.

A word of caution may be in order at this point. Perceiving the world from the individual's point of view is not an easy task. Our attempt will be limited, first of all, by what the individual says in the interview. Therefore, we will always see only in a clouded fashion the world of experience as it appears to the individual (142).

Another way of describing this concept more accurately is by the use of three simple little words: *with*, *for*, and *about*. When the counselor is thinking *for* or *about* the individual, he is in the *external* frame of reference. When he attempts to think *with* him, he is in the *internal* frame of reference. The counselor, in assuming the internal frame of reference, is, in effect, saying the following:

To be of assistance to you, I will put aside myself—the self of ordinary interaction—and enter into your world of perception as completely as I am able. I will become in a sense, an Alter-Ego—another self for you—a mirror held up to your own attitudes and feelings—an opportunity for you to discern yourself more clearly, to understand yourself more clearly, to choose more significantly (142, p. 89).

This concept, like the three basic attitudes heretofore discussed, demonstrates again an operational implementation of the basic tenet of democracy: the worth and capacity of the individual.

When the client experiences counseling in which the counselor has

successfully achieved the internal frame, such comments as these result:

We were mostly me working together on my situation as I saw it (142, p. 90).

I listened to myself talking, and in doing so, I would say that I solved my own problems (142).

Bixler and Bixler (17), while indicating the trend toward client-centeredness in vocational counseling, illustrate well two case studies written from different points of view. Although the Bixlers do not label these excerpts as such, the writers would like to label the first of these case studies "external," and the latter "internal." The following is a case study written from the external frame of reference.

I told her that at this time I didn't think we should be too definite in choosing a vocation, pointing out that the possibilities in the business field were good. At first, she objected to this field, but in discussing the alternatives, she agreed that it might be a possible choice. . . . Next, as to the educational problem, we apparently have a situation calling for remedial work concerning the reading disability. The girl had accepted this more or less as a situation which could not be remedied. I pointed out that if something could be done, it should be done, so that it would help her with her school work to become a better student. I pointed out the discrepancy on the college aptitude tests, and she herself admitted that in high school it was necessary for her to spend more time on her reading assignments. I gave her a reference to "Following Printed Trails" which I asked her to read over before coming to school next fall, at which time she will be turned over to our special counselor for her reading work. . . . Many of her feelings of inferiority arise from the home situation where her mother definitely prefers her younger brother, in such a way that she herself is not held in any particularly favorable light. I approached her intellectually on this question, showing her that it was more customary for a mother to get along better with a son and the father with the daughter, but under these circumstances, she should not let this affect her own confidence, and in coming on to college I said I was sure she could make friends with the greatest of ease and would make a favorable impression on other people.

The following is a case study written from the internal frame of reference:

N. explained that she was very happy in nursing last quarter and this quarter is very unhappy. As she described the situation, it became obvious that she was very upset. It seems that she had been planning on nursing for years and

enjoyed her work and worked hard last quarter, but this quarter can't even force herself to work. As she put it, she liked nursing very much and now she hates it, and she hates herself for the way she is behaving, but she can't seem to do anything about it. Everything that has always been disgusting in other people (including her sister), she is now faced with. She can't make herself work, she feels guilty when she wears her uniform because she feels as if she were a hypocrite, if she stays in this work because she won't like it and probably won't be able to do a good job. She felt that it was a very crucial choice in her life, that if she could go ahead and work it out and live through this thing and make her adjustment to it, she would be much stronger for having done it, and if she couldn't make her adjustment to it, she would be very weak and ineffective. She decided that actually what she was doing was running around looking for someone to answer it for her, when actually she was the only one who could arrive at a solution.

Treatment or vocational guidance were structured for her. She decided she wished to take tests, at least at first, and "do everything she could to clarify this dilemma."

LEARNING AND PROBLEM SOLVING IN COUNSELING

Since the counseling process is a learning situation, the techniques used should be checked against accepted experimental findings of educational psychology. Patterson, in his paper, "Vocational Counseling Techniques," states that "the vocational counseling situation is a learning situation *par excellence* in which the counselee attempts to learn about himself and about the world of work" (128, p. 94).

Travers comments on the guidance learning problem as follows:

Guidance is essentially a learning situation. . . . However, the term guidance is used by psychologists . . . in a different and limited sense to denote a limited range of learning situations in which a person with special psychological training plays an important part. Usually, in these learning situations the guidance worker is attempting to help the student to learn new behaviors which may solve immediate social difficulties or establish new long-term goals (183, p. 211).

Concerning evaluation of guidance activities, Travers states further: However, the guidance movement, in the restricted and specialized sense of the term, has been largely uninfluenced by the evaluation movement partly because guidance workers do not recognize that they, like any teacher, are trying to produce learning and therefore should measure how much learning

has taken place, and partly because the evaluation of specialized guidance functions presents special problems . . . (183, p. 212).

Travers builds a strong case for treating guidance evaluation the same as any other educational evaluation activity.

Berdie, in discussing counseling as an educational technique, observes that counselors regard their function as primarily therapeutic (14). Counselors tend to overlook the fact that the counseling process centers around a problem or a group of problems. The presence of these implies that problem-solving techniques should be employed. Berdie asserts:

If counseling is defined not as a therapy for students having difficulties but as an educational situation offering to all students opportunities for development, the part the counselor plays in our educational system becomes quite different from that played in the past (14, p. 89).

A further comment on the importance of learning is furnished by Darley, who states that, unless the learning process can be demonstrated, it is not correct to infer that the behavioral changes during and after counseling are outcomes of the counseling process (44).

The above writers emphasize the importance of learning aspects of guidance services, but they seem to be indefinite concerning how counseling techniques are used to facilitate desirable learning outcomes. It is beyond the scope of this book to present a systematic, theoretical formulation in learning theory or epistemology. Nevertheless, the comments which follow may have important implications for the guidance worker's psychology and philosophy.

An examination of the learning processes described in the preceding chapters seems to indicate that the guidance process is a problem-solving sequence. The writers do not imply that one can make the guidance process a completely rational procedure. The process is charged with many emotions, particularly anxiety, to which counseling techniques are applied. In addition, not all the needed facts are known, and decisions are based frequently on how the client *feels* about a course of action. Since the process involves many cold realities, such as opportunities and entrance requirements, much of the educational-vocational planning interview can be conducted on a rational level. The counselor's skill comes into play here in helping the client to accept the facts without distortion.

The problem-solving process is described by Dewey in several well-defined steps which are initiated by a problem: "The origin of thinking is some perplexity, confusion, or doubt. Thinking is not a case of spontaneous combustion; it does not occur just on 'general principles'. There is something that occasions or evokes it" (49, p. 15). Dewey states further that "reflective thinking, in distinction from other operations to which we apply the name of thought, involves (1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty, in which thinking originates, and (2) an act of searching, hunting, inquiring, to find material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity" (49, p. 12).

Counseling is akin to the above situations mentioned by Dewey. The client comes perplexed and anxious. Usually he has given the situation considerable thought prior to counseling, but has reached no satisfying conclusion. He feels he must make a decision, however, so he comes seeking clarification of his problem and facts which will facilitate solution. The counselor becomes of greatest help at this point—when the client is groping helplessly for *methods* to solve his problem, as well as for specific information.

The situation where problem-solving methods learned in the physical sciences and elsewhere have not transferred to the personal area is apparent to many counselors. Evidence from a study by Morse and McCune tends to confirm this conclusion: "Critical ability and reflective thinking tend to develop along with knowledge and understanding in separate fields rather than as universals or generally transferable values" (119, p. 16).

Dewey lists five phases to the reflective-thinking process (49, p. 107):

1. Suggestions, in which the mind leaps forward to a possible solution;
2. An intellectualization of the difficulty that has been *felt* into a *problem* to be solved . . . ;
3. An hypothesis, to initiate and guide observation and other operations in collection of factual material;
4. The mental elaboration of the idea or supposition . . . (reasoning . . .);
5. Testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action.

The following steps indicate applications of Dewey's problem-solving methods to the counseling process.

Step 1, Feeling the Need for Counseling. The client comes for counseling because he has a difficulty which arouses anxiety. Most clients are well aware of the cultural pressures to have an approved goal and personal necessity for a realistic goal. Lewin uses the term "status anxiety" to describe the family pressures toward status and fulfilling cultural expectations in general (104). These are serious sources of anxiety among students.

Step 2, Defining the Problem. This step involves clarification of the problem. Clients usually realize that they have a problem, but frequently they are aware of a vague anxiety only. The initial interview contains step 2 of the problem-solving process—clarification and definition of the problem. The phenomenon of perception distortion by needs has been discussed previously in this book, but it is apropos in this context, also. The value of clarification is stated aptly by Gates: "The more accurately and completely the problem is defined the better criteria the learner has for evaluating the appropriateness of the responses he makes to the situation or the ideas which he brings to bear upon it" (62, p. 454).

Step 3, Exploring the Data. When the problem is clarified through counseling techniques, the client usually turns to needed data for solution. Thus, in Dewey's system, he is in the last phase of step 3—the location, evaluation, and organization of information. The basic sources of information available in counseling are the appraisal devices (tests, records, case histories), occupational information, and referral resources. In the self-adjustive approach to counseling, these data are gathered in the exploratory phase. Furthermore, an important element of this step is the "incubation" which takes place during the exploration of the data. This incubation period is necessary for the production of insights and hypotheses.

Step 4, Proposing and Testing Tentative Solutions. These steps in Dewey's system concern the analysis of thinking—discovering relationships and formulating hypotheses. The counseling counterpart is the mutual interpretation of tests, occupational information, and other data in terms of the client's needs and desires and in terms of the culture. This process of making inferences from data as to possible tentative life goals is probably the most difficult step in the process. Little information is available in personnel literature concerning the nature of the process of inference. The counselor and the client examine the data

for possible relationships and patterns from which to formulate the hypotheses—the tentative solutions. Such educational psychologists as Gates, Jersild, McConnell, and Challman admit that *how* these relationships are formed is still a mystery. These writers suggest saturating oneself with the data and then “aggressively” searching for solutions (62).

In Gestalt terminology, this searching process leads to restructuring of the field, which often causes the relationships to appear suddenly. In other cases, the insights may appear after extended systematic exploration. With students, the elements favoring insight are usually present. Hilgard (80) lists these characteristics of insight and the tests of its occurrence:

1. *Capacity* for solution
2. Relevant past *experience*
3. *Arrangement* of the situation for clear observation
4. *Fumbling* and search
5. Solutions can be *repeated*
6. Insight is useable in *new situations*

The counseling situation is not quite so fumbling as this discussion might imply, since the client usually has some hypotheses in the form of previous aspirations, goals, values, and capacities he wishes to test with the assembled data. Frequently, however, this results in a kind of rigidity which prevents his seeing new relationships or relationships of which he has been unaware. Flexibility in reflective thinking is necessary if the client is to become self-adjustive.

Frequently counselors and clients can reach no satisfactory hypothesis from the data at hand. Occasionally the writers have seen clients leave without hypotheses, make appointments for a later interview, and then come back with a satisfying and appropriate decision to check with the data. This illustrates the need for an occasional “incubation” period, which allows a fresh “set” to be assumed. This is another reason for the necessity of an exploratory phase in the self-adjustive counseling process.

Step 5, Verifying the Tentative Solutions. When the client has reached tentative conclusions concerning his problems, he must test his decisions through an overt or imaginative tryout. He does this by thinking of all the possible alternatives and consequences of taking tentative courses of action. Any necessary adjustments are made by

shifting plans before final action. If these decisions are not harmonious with his self-concept, he must reflect on the consequences, seek more data, reformulate his hypothesis, and test again. The exploration of one's capacities, values, interests, and attitudes through tests is a form of considering alternatives and consequences in the problem-solving process. These testing experiences are economy measures in that they substitute for tryout experiences.

William James (89) has pointed out and Elton Mayo has emphasized in recent years that almost every civilized language except English has two commonplace words for knowledge—as in French, *connaître* and *savoir*—knowledge-of-acquaintance and knowledge-about. Mayo writes: “This distinction, simple as it is, nevertheless is exceedingly important; *knowledge-of-acquaintance* comes from direct experience of fact and situation, *knowledge-about* is the product of reflective and abstract thinking” (114, p. 16).

It appears that the terms “knowledge-about” and “knowledge-of-acquaintance” may be intimately related to the nature of the counseling process. Once the appropriate climate and set have been established, problem solving is possible, and *knowledge-about* one's problems is the result. This is not enough, however, since knowledge-of-acquaintance must come from direct experience. So, in the process of actually *verbalizing* problems, one actually relives and reexperiences. This process is what changes the self-structure. This reexperiencing seems to be the process by which knowledge-about becomes knowledge-of-acquaintance. It follows, therefore, that problem solving is a necessary element of counseling, *but* unless this problem solving takes place in a permissive atmosphere where free verbalization is possible, basic changes in the self do not seem likely to occur. Perhaps this phenomenon may be the reason why reflective thinking on personal problems in solitude is so unfruitful. The addition of an accepting, permissive person with whom one can *share* one's problems allows for verbalization and enables frank examination of self and behavior. The process of verbalizing enables the client to put his vague feelings into symbols which he can manipulate with problem-solving techniques. Furthermore, this provides a situation in which *intellectual* problems are explored in the necessary *emotional* setting. Only in such a setting does it appear that the experiencing self and one's self-concept can be brought together in self-adjustive harmony.

Counseling thus enables a client to *act*, to *share*, and to *verbalize*.

These three are necessary elements in problem solving for self-adjustment.

An additional objective of this problem-solving process is that of *transfer of training*. In other words, the methods of problem solving which the client learns in counseling should transfer to other life situations after counseling.

The above discussion has been presented to indicate the applications of problem-solving theory to self-adjustive counseling. The discussion has practical application in indicating the nature of the process of counseling to the counselor.

A study by Corcoran reveals the following client comment in response to a question asking for suggestions for improving counseling procedure. "The main thing is to let the person being counseled explain his feelings and to evaluate possible alternatives" (35). This client desired a situation in which problem solving for self-adjustment was possible.

Perhaps counselors should adopt the attitude proposed by Rogers that teachers should give up attempts to teach and try to create conditions which facilitate learning, instead (152). We might restate this idea to read: Counselors should give up attempts to "counsel," and instead try to create conditions which facilitate personal problem solving.

To summarize, it is felt that the self-adjustive approach to counseling creates a situation in which problem solving is possible, which in turn leads to a restructuring of the self-concept.

SUMMARY

The attitudes of the counselor create a psychological climate which holds, for the client, implications concerning his value as a person. Self-regarding attitudes are those concerned with such feelings as worth, security, and adequacy which are influenced by the climate of the interview. The internal frame of reference is the attitudinal set of the counselor which creates a climate conducive to self-adjustment. The counseling process is a learning situation with problem solving occupying a central position. Problem solving, facilitated by a permissive atmosphere in which free verbalization is possible leads to a basic reorganization of the self.

Chapter 4

TESTING THE SELF-ADJUSTIVE APPROACH

To test the effectiveness of the self-adjustive counseling approach in contrast to the traditional approach, an experimental study was conducted at Stanford University. This chapter describes the results of the study.

This study employed control and experimental groups. The control group was counseled with the traditional techniques; the experimental group was counseled according to the self-adjustive approach. At the completion of counseling, an independent interviewer conducted a twenty-minute recorded interview with the clients of both groups. Three raters then listened to these recordings and rated independently each of the twenty-minute evaluation-interview items.¹

Feeling tone (client affective expression of satisfaction with counseling and feeling of self-direction) was the criterion used to evaluate the effectiveness of the counseling.

Results indicated that the self-adjustive approach resulted in more positive client satisfaction with counseling and more self-direction. A more complete discussion of results, methods, and criteria may be found in Chapter 9 as well as in other publications (9, 11, 21, and 162).

Descriptions of each of the above approaches are outlined briefly in the following sections of this chapter.

THE TRADITIONAL APPROACH

Initial Interview

1. *Establishing Rapport.* It is assumed that rapport has been established by the usual methods as described in Chapter 5.

2. *Statement of the Problem.* Several minutes are spent by the student stating and clarifying his problem.

3. *Structuring.* The counselor takes a few minutes for structuring and orientation. This generally consists of statements about the facilities

¹ See Appendix A for sample evaluation interview.

and services available and what the student can expect to receive from the counseling.

4. *Individual Survey.* An abbreviated case history is taken by the counselor from responses to direct questions. Such a survey covers generally identifying data, present family status, family background, present employment status, school history, activity and hobby record, juvenile work experience, jobs, reactions to jobs, military experience, disabilities, and present job preferences. This survey is a rather complete, systematic, factual record of factors bearing upon counseling problems.

5. *Test Selection.* The counselor suggests a battery of tests and asks the client for confirmation.

6. *Occupational Orientation.* The counselor stresses briefly the importance of occupational information in the solution of the student's problem and urges him to take advantage of the information facilities available.

7. *Psychometric Orientation.* Arrangements are made for administration of tests.

In the interval between the initial and synthesis interviews, the student takes his tests and conducts his occupational research.

Synthesis Interview

1. *Test Interpretation.* Since this process is considerably test-centered, the student usually directs his first attention to the test results. After a brief structuring on the uses and limitations of tests, results are presented verbally through standard commercial test profiles.

2. *Occupational Information.* From a discussion of test results and their implications, the interview usually turns to vocational opportunities and occupations suggested by the test results. Here the student volunteers the information he has obtained from libraries and elsewhere; but, more frequently, the counselor presents appropriate occupational facts.

3. *Synthesis.* Toward the end of the interview the counselor usually summarizes the test results, relevant occupational information, and background factors from the case history. The purpose of this phase is to get a consolidated view of all the pertinent data collected about interests, aptitudes, personality traits, occupations, and educational preparation for these occupations.

4. *Selection of Objective.* The counselor lists all the discussed occupational possibilities. He is aided in this task by liberal use of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* or similar publications. From these occupational possibilities the client is asked generally to pick one or more tentative educational-vocational goals. The counselor then examines this objective for adequacy in light of the known data.

THE SELF-ADJUSTIVE APPROACH

To facilitate counseling under the self-adjustive approach, a series of forms and procedures has been developed. The following is an overview of the counseling process. It should be noted that this is a model of a series of interviews where the need for testing and occupational research is assumed. Detailed discussions of specific techniques and presentation of materials are developed in subsequent chapters.

Initial Interview

1. *Establishing Rapport.* Again, rapport is to be established.
2. *Structuring.* A brief structuring of the counseling relationship is performed. Some of the group-orientation points about student and counselor roles are reiterated. Acknowledgement of the Student Information Summary (see Figure 13, Chapter 6) is made with a statement concerning the future use of this form in the synthesis phase of the interview. In general, the initial interview is fairly unstructured.
3. *Discussion of Problems.* The bulk of the last page of the Student Information Summary is devoted to the student's conception of his problem as it appears to him prior to counseling. The student also indicates on the form whether he feels he has any problems other than vocational. The bulk of the interview is used by the student to clarify and analyze his problems. This procedure avoids the assumption that the student's problem is primarily vocational in nature. The balance of the initial interview consists of the consideration of sources of data which will assist the client in the solution of those problems which have been crystallized earlier in this interview. This parallels the problem-solving sequence outlined in the preceding chapter. At this point in self-adjustive counseling, consideration of many sources of data is made. The following steps, 4, 5, and 6, however, are limited to test and occupational orientation because of the demands of the experimental

study to equal the amount of data utilized by experimental and control clients.

4. *Test Selection.* This is a mutual process based upon knowledge about tests presented in the precounseling orientation and from information and structuring by the counselor at appropriate times. Tests are selected when a need has been expressed by the client for test information to assist him in making his decisions.

5. *Occupational Orientation.* This phase consists primarily in introducing the client to the facilities of the vocational library. Here he makes an appointment for vocational exploration with the occupational counselor, if such a staff member is available and if the client desires to do so. In the precounseling orientation, the student receives an overview of the occupational structure and motivation for use of the library.

6. *Psychometric Orientation.* Arrangements for testing are made. Time is taken for discussion of testing and its relation to counseling.

Interim Period

Between the initial and synthesis interviews, the student takes his tests, performs his occupational research, and investigates other informational resources.

Synthesis Interview

The permissive and relatively unstructured second interview allows the client to choose the topics important to him and to set the pace for the interview.

1. *Test Interpretation.* Usually the client chooses to have the tests interpreted immediately. This is accomplished through use of the Test Interpretation form and appropriate commercial test profiles. Prior to the second interview, the counselor records official test results from the Psychometric Report to the Test Interpretation forms. This interpretation is collated with information given in the precounseling orientation.

2. *Occupational Information.* Occupational research facilitated by the Career Study Outline² is reviewed by student and counselor and is related to his problem of vocational choice.

² For complete description of this form, see Chapter 8.

3. *Synthesis*. Client and counselor summarize jointly information about the working world from the vocational library, information about the client from tests, and background information about the individual from the Student Information Summary. School courses and related occupations suggested by the data and the student are identified and discussed. The consequences of choosing each of the alternatives are discussed. The student records these tentative majors and their related occupations on the Formulation of Occupational Plans form.

This phase offers opportunities to discuss personal problems, such as fear of failure, and pressures of external reality, such as parental objections to certain occupations.

The interview culminates with the assembling of the relevant test and occupational data into a brochure to be taken home by the student. This brochure facilitates the student's future planning.

Table I is a brief summary contrasting the two approaches discussed above.

TABLE I. COUNSELING AND TESTING PROCEDURES FOR THE TRADITIONAL AND SELF ADJUSTIVE APPROACHES

Traditional	Self-adjustive
I. <i>Initial interview</i>	I. <i>Precounseling orientation and initial interview</i>
1. Establishment of rapport	1. Establishment of rapport (minimized, since partially established in pre-counseling orientation)
2. Statement of problem by student	2. Structuring by counselor
3. Structuring by counselor	3. Discussion of problems by student (bulk of interview is used for client to clarify and analyze his problems)
4. Completion of case history (bulk of interview)	4. Test selection (if desired)
5. Test selection	5. Occupational orientation (if applicable)
6. Occupational orientation	6. Psychometric orientation (if applicable)
7. Psychometric orientation	
II. <i>Interim period</i> (testing and unstructured individual occupational research)	II. <i>Interim period</i> (testing, individual occupational research, and use of Career Study Outline)
III. <i>Intervening and synthesis interviews</i>	III. <i>Intervening and synthesis interviews</i>
1. Test interpretation	1. Test interpretation
2. Discussion of occupational information	2. Discussion of Career Study Outlines
3. Synthesis of 1 and 2 plus personal background factors taken from case history	3. Synthesis: personal history, test, and occupational information—preparation of Life Planning Brochure
4. Selection of objectives	

SUMMARY

An introduction to the Stanford Guidance Study has been presented. This study contrasted two approaches to counseling—the traditional and the self-adjustive. The procedures in these two approaches have been outlined. Results of the study cited in this chapter indicated that the self-adjustive approach resulted in significantly more satisfaction with counseling and more client self-direction. This study is presented as evidence for the validity and utility of the self-adjustive approach to counseling. In addition, this chapter serves as a framework for the detailed discussion of techniques to follow.

Chapter 5

ESTABLISHING READINESS FOR COUNSELING

Counseling is a complex learning process. Many attitudes and facts leading to the goals of counseling can be learned effectively in groups. Group methods reduce the awkward and time-consuming process of preparing each client individually for his counseling experience. This chapter presents some background in group techniques and theory and provides a model for a precounseling group meeting.

Much research is being conducted in group techniques by such organizations as the Navy, National Training Laboratory for Group Development, Social Science Research Council, and many universities.¹ Some of the principles evolved from their experiments are presented in this chapter.

Readiness for counseling is the primary purpose of the precounseling orientation. This readiness process attempts to accomplish the following:

1. Acquaint the client with the philosophy and services of the guidance program
2. Help the client to develop a reasonable level of expectation concerning outcomes of counseling and testing
3. Instruct about the basic facts of testing and occupations
4. Reduce anxieties about seeking help from tests and counselors
5. Establish initial rapport
6. Acquaint the student with his own and the counselor's role in educational-vocational planning

Institutions other than schools have attempted this technique. The Veterans Administration has published program aids for "preadvisement" (189). These aids may be criticized, however, because of their overintellectualization of the process at the expense of the attitudinal preparation. Their stated objectives are not as inclusive as those stated above.

¹ University of Michigan, University of California at Berkeley, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, University of Chicago.

The most important of the purposes listed above is the development of goals for counseling. Students come with many conceptions concerning what counseling can accomplish. Few realize that the solution to their problem depends upon them. The task of acquainting the client with the goals of self-understanding and self-direction, and motivating him for them, is one of the most difficult problems the counselor faces. Troyer, a member of the Commission on Teacher Education, suggests that high among the goals of the guidance services "should be that of developing in the student increased competence in identifying his own strengths and weaknesses and in planning accordingly" (184, p. 280). He adds the necessity for clarification of these goals when he asserts: "A student cannot assume major responsibility for identifying his own strengths and weaknesses unless it is in relation to goals and competencies that are clear and meaningful to him" (184, p. 289).

An intensive analysis of the data from veterans' counseling by Corcoran indicated that many students came for counseling with an obscure notion concerning what to expect (35). Since counseling can be only as successful as the client makes it, it would seem to follow that the client should have the right "set" if he is to gain the most from the process. Gestalt psychologists (76, 122, 214) have illustrated that our perceptual organs and emotions are set a certain way, as the sails of a boat are set. This set may vary from time to time, but at any given moment, our mental set determines our responses to certain experiences, just as the set of its sails determines a boat's response to the wind.

In an effort to create the proper set for counseling, the term "level of expectation" is posited. This means that if, through a proper orientation, the client would establish a realistic level of expectation from counseling, then he could be said to have the proper set for counseling.

The following is taken from the introductory remarks of the pre-counseling orientation and illustrates an attempt to convey this mental set to the students:

One of the things we have found in our counseling of students in the Guidance Center for the past three years is that we are not completely successful with all of them. We have some failures. We believe that one of the reasons for our failures is that the student, when he comes in for counseling, may have only a vague notion of what this service is all about. He may not understand what the counselor can offer or what these tests can do. He may think

that these tests have some magical qualities. He may think that all he has to do is to take a battery of tests and that these tests will solve all of his problems. He may think that the counselor has sort of a crystal ball into which he can look and find the answers to all of his questions. When the counselor and tests cannot give him that kind of information, he may leave the counseling center just a little bit frustrated with the whole thing. He may even feel more confused than when he first came to the counseling center.²

In addition to clarifying motives, goals, and aspirations, the orientation sought to clarify meanings. Adolescents, especially those with high scholastic ability, have acquired many symbols related to testing, counseling, and occupations. The counselor seeks to take these abstractions concerning the guidance services and attach to them more concrete meanings from the student's experience. An illustration is the term "aptitude," which is a frequently used but very vague concept to many students. Cantor, in discussing these referents, emphasizes the need for bringing the symbol and the referent closer together:

Most of us acquire verbal symbols without ever having had the chance to observe the realities to which they refer. As a result we tend to identify the symbol as the reality and, hence, we talk about words instead of meanings, *i.e.*, the reality for which it stands. . . . The average student has been "educated by definition." He is exposed to and required to accept statements, symbols, long before he can understand what they refer to (28, p. 152).

And, again Cantor emphasizes that:

The student cannot assimilate knowledge-symbols unless he is able to locate in his own experience the reality to which the symbol refers. Knowledge cannot be made meaningful unless the instructor recognizes the problem of helping the student translate that knowledge in terms of the latter's own emotional and intellectual experience (28, p. 26).

The counselors, recognizing this semantic confusion, attempt to clarify meanings through exposition and group discussions. The group discussions seem to be valuable means for accomplishing this clarity.

In addition to making the client's goals meaningful, the orientation is designed to help the student see the relationship between his goals and the means for reaching them through informational techniques and client-centered counseling techniques.

The therapeutic purpose of group discussion cannot be overlooked.

² See Appendix B for complete text of the precounseling orientation.

For example, the sensitive teacher has observed the anxiety with which some students approach a test. Students continue to approach guidance tests with the same trepidation. Allowing the student to ask questions, to share his fears, and to debate issues aids considerably in the reduction of anxiety (114). Hoppock cites the "sharing" value of group guidance in his statement: "Group guidance provides an opportunity for students to compare opinions and judgments, not only with one counselor and a few friends, but also with a group of perhaps thirty other students facing the same problem" (85, p. 6). Warters observed that "students often accept from fellow students ideas and suggestions earlier offered by adults and rejected by students" (199, p. 132).

In group sessions, students have an opportunity to relate vocational problems to personality needs. Only when basic needs and values are verbalized and structured can test results and occupational information be used meaningfully. This therapeutic value of orientation is illustrated by the following comment of a student in the Stanford Guidance Study: "I think the idea of taking the fellows in and briefing them was a very good idea. It orients you and you don't go in there all excited and cold."

Most of the above goals of the orientation could be accomplished in the interview, but economy of time is important in counseling large numbers of students.

The illustrative group discussion centers around six visual aids:

1. Counseling Opportunities Available
2. The Occupational Pyramid
3. U.S. Occupational Trends
4. Factors in Planning
5. Counseling Potentialities and Limitations
6. Levels of Personal Counseling

The next section is concerned with the development of the illustrative charts and accompanying discussion. Figures 8, 9, and 10 are allied primarily with the informational aspects of the orientation. Attitudes toward the self are discussed in reference to Figures 7, 11, and 12.

Group participation is encouraged throughout the orientation. There is ample evidence from philosophy and psychology to indicate that effective learning takes place only when the student actively participates. Cantor devotes an entire volume, *The Dynamics of Learning*, to this problem (28). Kelley writes on the role of perception and activity

in education. His basic hypothesis, supported by laboratory evidence, is "that one cannot learn by authority but only by experience" (95, p. 66). Dewey's work in epistemology stresses the process whereby an event becomes an object of knowledge only when it is experienced, reflected upon, and refined (49). In this experimentalist philosophy, which is compatible with accepted guidance philosophy, the learner has a creative role. Others have amplified these ideas since (43, 46, and 61).

In the orientation, facts about the guidance process are presented to the student through the medium of the figures in this chapter. He is encouraged, in the group discussion, to ask questions to clarify the ideas and to make them his own by tying them in with his past experience.

Since positive transfer of facts and principles is a purpose of the pre-counseling orientation, the possibilities for transfer are stressed by the leaders during the discussion.

The following sections discuss each phase of the group orientation as it centers around the figures.

AN ILLUSTRATIVE GROUP ORIENTATION

Counseling Opportunities Available

It is important in counseling that one does not overlook the concept of the "whole student." On the other hand, counseling always takes on a rather specific nature when the problems have been defined by the client. To illustrate this concept, Figure 7 was devised; following is a presentation of what might be said in a precounseling orientation about this figure:

Now just a word about the counseling process. Most of you are coming in to get some educational or vocational guidance. Some of you already know what fields you wish to enter—you are pretty sure about your educational major. That's fine. These tests and interviews might help to confirm that major. On the other hand, some of you may be confused about what field you wish to enter. These tests and interviews may help to clarify the direction in which you wish to go. There is one thing I wish to stress at this point, however. We are dealing with a total individual. We simply cannot divide the individual into fragments. Vocational problems, educational problems, personal problems—they are all interrelated. This chart illustrates my point. We want to stress also that some students are helped by taking tests; others

are not. It may be that you'll decide you won't want to take any tests at all, and that you and your counselor can solve your problems by counseling alone (Appendix B, pp. 171-177).

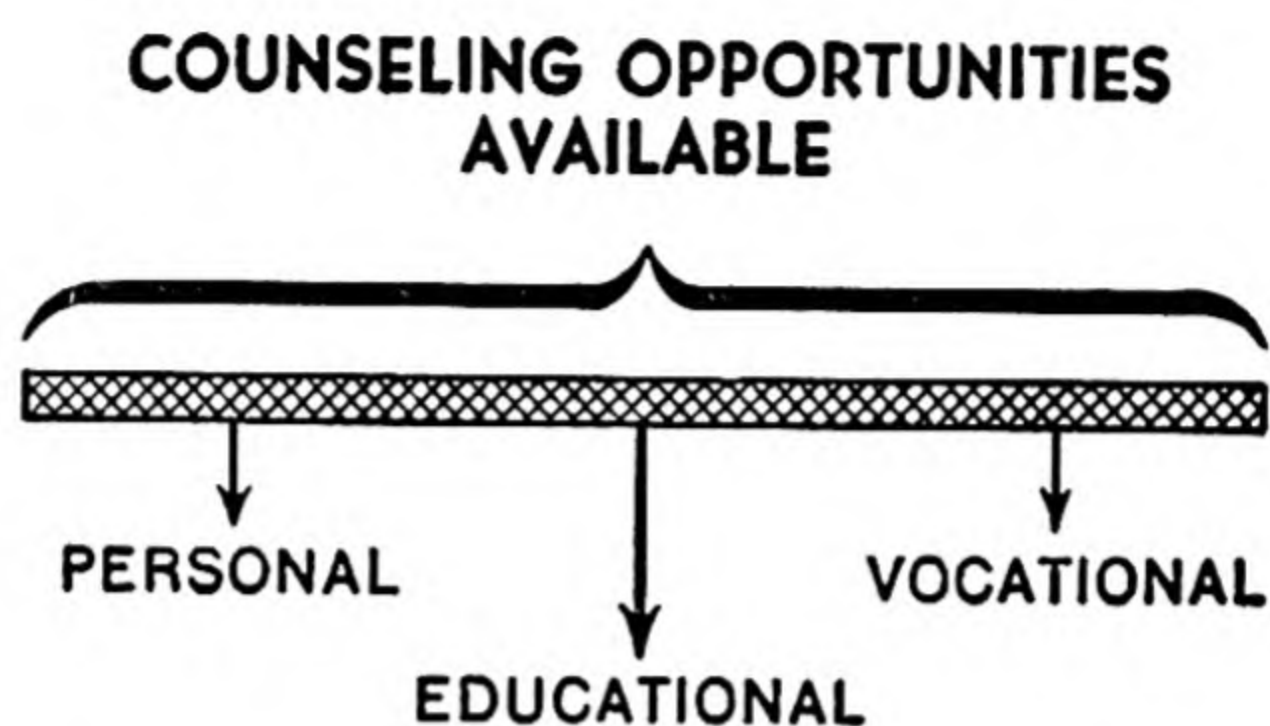


FIG. 7.

The Occupational Pyramid

Educational-vocational adjustment has been thought by many counselors to be a rational process of bringing occupational facts and personal facts together. The crucial question which the writers hope to answer in this section is: "What occupational facts and what information about self are needed?"

In the occupational-information area, the client should know some generalizations about the occupational structure and trends to place his specific occupational choices in present and historical context.

The large number of different classified occupations (over 40,000) is stressed in order to help the client realize that his counselor cannot possibly know all pertinent facts about these occupations, nor can he possibly keep up with the rapidly changing facts about opportunities for each occupation. This is emphasized in the sample discussion, as follows: "Furthermore, one cannot expect a counselor to know each of these 40,000 occupations. He is not a walking encyclopedia of occupational information." The discussion of this figure also provides an excellent opportunity to stress the need for individual library research in the latest pamphlets on occupations.

Figure 8 is based upon data collected by Anderson and Davidson (6). One purpose of this figure is to show that jobs are arranged as a pyramid. Many conceive of the occupational structure as a ladder with equal steps. An abstract of this section of the sample orientation is presented in the following:

. . . . we have often thought of jobs in this country as being arranged on a kind of ladder. That is, you can start at the bottom rung and climb, readily,

right up to the top. That may have been true a few years ago when you could start as office boy and work your way up to the presidency of the firm. The present job structure, however, does not resemble a ladder, but rather a pyramid with high steps.³

THE OCCUPATIONAL PYRAMID

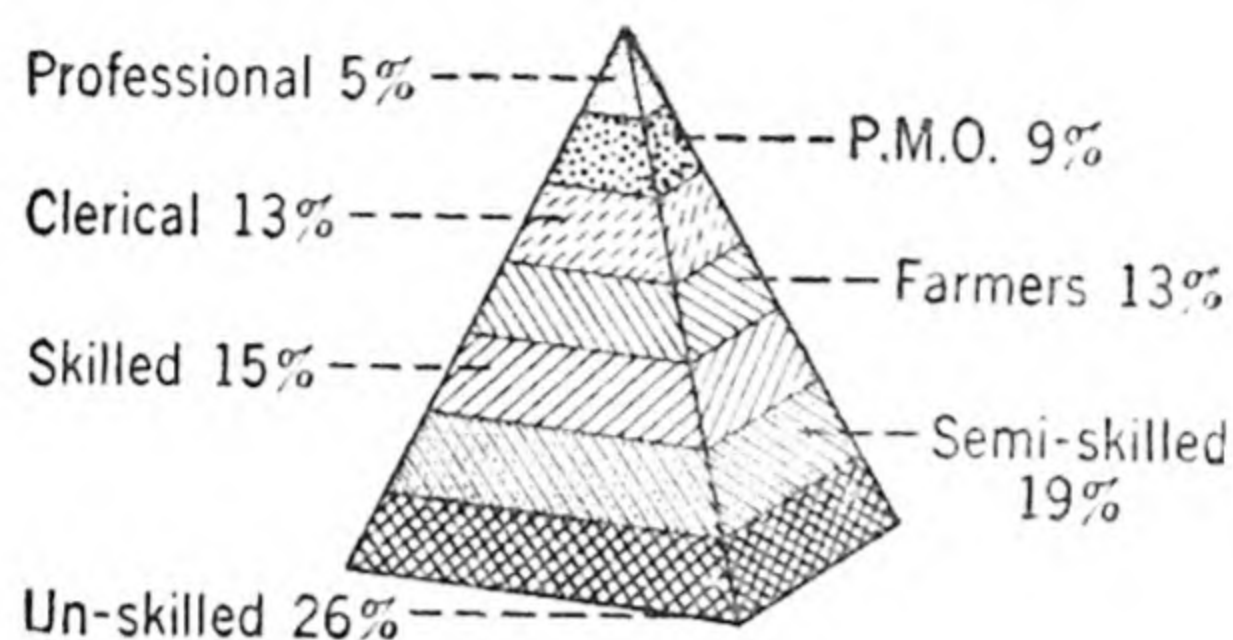


FIG. 8.

This is followed by a brief noting of the comparative sizes of the groups, with special emphasis upon the professional category and some of its characteristics. For college students, stress is placed upon the large number of occupations classified as professional (4,000) and the fact that there are professions other than doctor, lawyer, and engineer. High-school counselors would probably stress the small relative size of the professional category.

U.S. Occupational Trends

In addition to knowing the present job structure, it is important also to know job trends so that inferences can be made about the occupational opportunities of the future.

Figure 9 illustrates the trends of the major occupational categories from 1910 to 1950. These categories are based upon Edward's "socio-economic" classification of occupations (53), and the data were obtained from Anderson and Davidson (6). Additional data for 1950 were obtained from the Census Bureau.⁴ The 1950 percentage estimates do not include military personnel.

The client's attention is drawn to the professional category. The facts and significance of the similar relative positions of this group over the decades is discussed.

It is estimated that 40 to 60 per cent of high school graduates aspire

³See Appendix B for complete verbatim orientation.

⁴*Preliminary Reports, 1950 Census of Population*. Series PC-7, No. 2. Washington. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Apr. 11, 1951, p. 28.

to enter one of the professions. To *show* such a counselee that the trend for the past forty years has shown that only a relatively small per cent of the occupational force is employed in the professions will at least help the counselee to see the situation more realistically. Merely to verbalize such a fact for a student often does not have much effect.

Another purpose in presenting occupational trends to the client is to motivate him to use the vocational library. The discussion leader gives a brief overview of the resources available in the vocational

U.S. OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS, 1910-50

1910	%	1920	%	1930	%	1940	%	1950	%
1. Farmers	16.5	1. Semi-skilled	16.1	1. Semi-skilled	16.4	1. Semi-skilled	21.0	1. Semi-skilled	19.8
2. Laborers	14.7	2. Farmers	15.6	2. Clerks	16.3	2. Clerks	17.2	2. Clerks	18.8
3. Farm labor	14.5	3. Laborers	14.6	3. Skilled	12.9	3. Skilled	11.7	3. Skilled	13.7
4. Skilled	11.7	4. Clerks	13.8	4. Laborers	12.9	4. Laborers	10.7	4. Servants	10.0
5. Clerks	10.2	5. Skilled	13.5	5. Farm labor	8.6	5. Farmers	10.1	5. P. M. O.	9.0
6. Servants	6.8	6. Farm labor	9.4	6. P. M. O.	7.5	6. Servants	8.0	6. Prof.	8.9
7. P. M. O.	6.5	7. P. M. O.	6.8	7. Servants	6.9	7. P. M. O.	7.6	7. Farmers	8.0
8. Prof.	4.4	8. Servants	5.4	8. Prof.	6.1	8. Farm labor	7.1	8. Laborers	6.0
		9. Prof.	5.0			9. Prof.	6.5	9. Farm labor	4.5

BASED ON ALBA M. EDWARD'S "SOCIO-ECONOMIC" CLASSIFICATION OF OCCUPATIONS

FIG. 9.

library and the kinds of answers the student can expect to find there. The students are urged to visit and browse in the library even though they may not feel a specific need at present.

Learning about Yourself

Figure 10⁵ helps the student to answer the question raised earlier in the chapter: "What should I know about myself?" This analogy of a boat was used to take some of the concepts concerning human abilities out of the abstract and give them more concrete meanings. The illustration can be introduced with a statement that it may help clarify and tie in some of the ideas presented. Thus the analogy is not overworked so as to appear oversimplified to the "sophisticated" student.

The discussion of this figure is introduced with a survey of factors to consider in selecting a vocation. Methods of gathering data about self, such as self-analysis, interest tests, aptitude tests, and personality tests, are stressed. There is a real need for orientation to testing, not only

⁵ This illustration was constructed from an analogy used by Dr. E. K. Strong, Jr.

to give information about tests, but to allay anxiety. Troyer's observations help confirm this statement of need: "Except for a few students who have full security because of outstanding ability, the general attitude toward evaluative activities is one of fear, boredom, disinterest, disgust, 'beating the game,' or getting over the hurdle. It is unlikely that such practices will give the evaluated a desirable feeling of adequacy, security, dignity, and worth" (184, p. 290). The group leader stresses the point that the use of tests is solely to help the client understand himself. The statements emphasize the "you" aspect, throughout. "We want to stress, however, that we have our limitations. We can't solve all of your problems for you. One of the things we can do for you, however, is to give you some interest tests. These tests measure your likes and dislikes. There are no right or wrong answers on these

FACTORS IN PLANNING

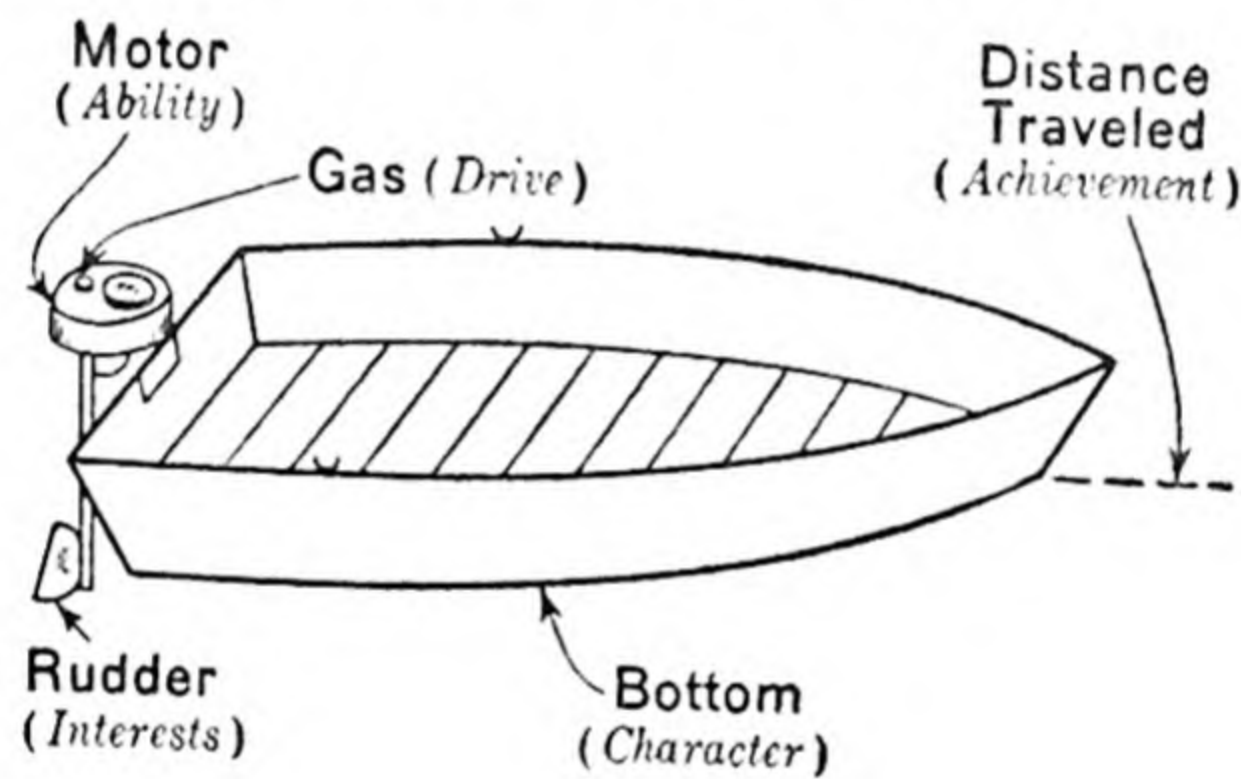


FIG. 10.

tests." This is followed by a discussion of the values, limitations, and cautions in the use of aptitude and personality tests. Personality tests are discussed not as analyses of personality but as indicators of some possible areas of adjustment the student might like to discuss with his counselor.

This extensive discussion of tests—their uses and types—might be justified in terms of general education as well as of precounseling preparation. Everyone comes in contact with tests in business, school, government, and clinics. Testing is "big business" in this country, and the educated man should have an accurate knowledge about the values and limitations of tests as well as the kinds which are valuable for special purposes. The Ethical Standards Committee of the American Psychological Association estimates that, in 1944, twenty million Americans took sixty million psychological tests (55, p. 1). This committee

cites the great danger of test "quacks" and lack of ethical standards in the distribution and use of tests. A background of general test information should help the client protect himself against the unscrupulous testing agencies which Steiner describes so ominously (169).

After an introduction to the uses and limitations of tests and the nature of human abilities and interests, Figure 10 is presented. The analogies are as follows:

1. *Motor*: "That's your particular combination of abilities. We can measure some of these abilities with aptitude tests."
2. *Rudder*: "You notice that the boat has a rudder which gives it direction. That is comparable to the interests which you have. Interests give you direction. We can measure your interests with interest inventories."
3. *Bottom*: "The boat has a bottom, which we might compare to our personality or character traits." The purpose of this discussion of character is to stress the place of values in job satisfaction and success. "You are all familiar with individuals with real ability who wind up on Skid Row because they had too many lost week ends, or the successful banker who couldn't resist the temptation of an \$850,000 lift of leisure."
4. *Gas*: This factor is analogous to drive, motivation, and the setting of aspirations and goals.
5. *Distance traveled*: All the above factors working together result in "distance traveled" through life—one's achievement.

The leader emphasizes that the counselor or the tests cannot measure all of the factors such as drive and character; nevertheless, they are important to consider in life planning.

When Figure 10 was being planned, it was assumed that the information would help the client think about the various factors pertinent to planning, and that he would be in a more enlightened position to talk over these areas with the counselor.

Counseling Potentialities and Limitations

Figure 11 was developed to counteract graphically the notion that counseling is a procedure in which "you take some tests and then the counselor tells you what to do." It conveys the idea that counseling is a process which assists the student to learn more about himself. The following excerpts from the orientation illustrates:

What we all are striving for is self-understanding, or as we depict it here in the chart, we want to get from San Francisco to New York. Now, don't

expect that *we* are going to drop you in New York with a few tests and interviews. There are no magic carpets in our center. You have to make the trip yourself. You are the guy who has to go across the country. The interest tests may act as signals to make your trip less confusing. The aptitude tests may tell you something about the nature and capacity of your vehicle. Is it good enough to make such a long and hard trip? The occupational information will help to point out the topography, climate, and detours along the route. What we do then is to act as a sort of counseling AAA service to make your trip a little easier. You are the guy who makes the trip, and we try to help you achieve this self-understanding. We may only get you started on this trip, but we hope that as a result of our efforts you have a clearer conception of where you want to go and how you are going to get there (Appendix B).

COUNSELING POTENTIALITIES AND LIMITATIONS



FIG. 11.

Emphasis is placed on self-direction and self-actualization rather than on tests and counselor diagnosis.

Levels of Personal Counseling

Many counselors have found that students often use “vocational” counseling as a subterfuge to talk about certain personal problems with a counselor. There seems to be a certain stigma attached to having personal problems. To counteract this notion, Figure 12 was devised. The following is an excerpt to illustrate the manner in which this illustration might be used:

We often find in our counseling that a student has a personal problem and is reluctant to talk about it. For some reason or other, many people think there is a certain stigma attached to having personal conflicts. We all have problems. I’m not talking about (*turns to chart*) major mental disorders [Psychoses]. I’m not even referring to minor mental disorders [Neuroses] —(*again pointing to chart*). What I’m talking about are the common, every-

day personal problems which all of us have (*again pointing to chart*). We all have them, so don't hesitate to discuss them with your counselor. They naturally will influence your planning. You see, your educational, vocational, and personal problems are all intimately interrelated. All of the counselors are trained clinicians and will be happy to discuss your personal problems with you.

LEVELS OF PERSONAL COUNSELING

- 1 **PSYCHOSES**
(Major mental disorders)
- 2 **NEUROSES**
(Minor mental disorders)
- 3 **PERSONAL PROBLEMS**
which we ALL have

FIG. 12.

Importance of a Permissive and Informal Atmosphere in the Precounseling Orientation

To create as informal and permissive an atmosphere as possible for this orientation, it should be conducted in surroundings in which the students can lounge and smoke if they desire. The group orientation should be presented without the usual formality of the classroom. It should also be stressed that the orientation should not be merely a talk *to* the students; much discussion, much give and take, should be by the students themselves. The leader may provide, through the medium of illustrations similar to those described above, a framework from which the students may discuss points as they relate to themselves and their problems.

After the general orientation, the students might also form small groups with the counselor to whom they have been assigned. This procedure makes for an air of informality. It affords each student an opportunity to meet his counselor before the first interview. In other words, much rapport can be established before the first interview begins, thus allowing for more time in the interview for a discussion of problems.

The Distribution of the Student Information Summary in the Precounseling Orientation

Before adjournment, the Student Information Summary may be distributed. The students are requested to complete this form before

they come to their first interview. They are advised that the form could give them an opportunity to think systematically about some important considerations prior to the first interview. It should be emphasized that this form is not designed to give the counselor diagnostic information *about* the student, but to provide a framework from which the student can discuss his own problems.

Attention is called to the last section of this form, which reads as follows: "Briefly indicate your situation. In other words, what help do you wish to obtain from counseling?"

The purpose of this section is to give the client a chance to think through his problems before he comes to counseling and to *put into words* exactly what he thinks his problems might be. This device is helpful in saving time in the first interview, since the client knows what he wants to talk about.

Evidence Concerning the Value of the Precounseling Orientation

Through a broad coverage of all the guidance services in the orientation, the client may see the value of services other than testing. Most school guidance programs and the general public overemphasize the values of testing in guidance and neglect the occupational information and counseling services.

Comments of students who participated in an experimental precounseling orientation offer a wealth of clinical data with which to evaluate the effectiveness of such a procedure. The comments which follow are responses to the question: "Did you know what to expect from the guidance service before you had your first interview with the counselor, *i.e.*, were you prepared in any way for the first interview? If "yes," what kind of preparation did you get?"⁶

Two comments illustrating the need for clarification of goals and meanings, information, and anxiety reduction came from students who had not had a precounseling orientation:

STUDENT 12 (*when asked if he thought some preparation would have been helpful*): I believe it would. It [counseling] had a worse bark than bite for me. I didn't know what to expect. I'd heard rumors—in reality it was rather painless.

STUDENT 10 (*when asked what aspect was of least value*): When you go to

⁶This question is from the evaluation interview of the Stanford Guidance Study. Students were numbered from 1 to 100.

the testing room everything is suddenly new to you. You don't have any knowledge. If you had a better idea—more knowledge is needed.

A comment from another student without the orientation illustrates the need for orientation concerning a realistic conception of tests: Client 35, when asked for suggested revisions of the program, said, "Tests to bring out hidden insides." He expected the counselor to have a "crystal ball."

The following comment, in response to a question on whether the student got what he expected, illustrates the need for orientation on the use of a vocational library and similar resources. This student apparently expected the counselor to give him detailed information about a definite occupation.

STUDENT 9 (*without orientation*): I came with the idea I might be able to find out something more or less about the definite occupation I had in mind and I didn't seem to get that.

The following comments from oriented students indicate that the orientation accomplished its objectives:

STUDENT 93: Quite a few fellows expect a sharp, clear-cut answer from tests—in these the answer is up to the individual. The sooner you understand that, the more successful your tests will be. It was very good. They put over their point which I think is very necessary.

STUDENT 76: Oh, yes. The first meeting was very successful; it was wonderful. I knew what to expect out of the tests, the counselors, etc. It gave us an over-all picture. I like the informal atmosphere.

STUDENT 59: I think that first meeting sort of cleared things up for us.

STUDENT 71: I was a little mixed up before I went there, but after that I knew what to expect before I went in to my counselor.

STUDENT 88 (*when asked if the tests helped him*): I didn't expect them to solve anything. They stimulated my thinking.

STUDENT 83: It is just like they told me the first night in the group meeting. Before the group meeting I thought I would have just the test with some counseling afterward; but they had a library and counseling and they talked things over with you.

STUDENT 91: I wasn't expecting any miracles. The achievement tests were good.

The above comments illustrate the value of establishing a realistic goal for tests and information and having the goal reached. The general

comment, "I knew what to expect and I got what I expected," summarizes the feeling of many students in the oriented group. Some students felt that the orientation cleared things up. These comments illustrate the need for clarification of goals and meanings in the orientation.

Many students felt that the orientation helped to personalize the guidance program. That they liked the informality also may be seen from the following comments:

STUDENT 68: Very good. I may be prejudiced, but I can't offer anything but praise for the whole program. I can't offer any criticism. It started off real personal—not like being run through a machine.

STUDENT 73: I thought it was great. It was of much value to me—Well, when I first started I didn't know what I was getting into. I expected a very formal atmosphere, but when I walked into the orientation . . . it was a kind of homey atmosphere.

STUDENT 84: I thought it was worth while because it set the general informality of the whole affair. I liked it very much.

The above comments appear to indicate that a precounseling orientation serves a useful readiness function in the total counseling process.

SUMMARY

The use of precounseling orientation as a technique in establishing readiness for counseling has been explored. Illustrative procedures and materials have been presented. Schools and colleges which utilize this approach should modify the materials and techniques to suit the local scene. This readiness procedure paves the way for the initial interview, which is described in Chapter 6.

Chapter 6

THE INITIAL INTERVIEW

THE USE OF THE STUDENT INFORMATION SUMMARY

Before presenting a description of the opening phases of the initial interview, it is appropriate to discuss the Student Information Summary which provides a starting point for the interview. This summary is shown in Figure 13.

Many writers have stressed the value of case-history information in counseling. It should be recognized that tests alone cannot give data on all the predictive factors. Darley presents a list of nine areas which he recommends as the structure of a systematic case study (47, p. 217).

1. General scholastic ability
2. Achievement to date
3. Aptitudes
4. Disabilities
5. Interests
6. Attitudes
7. Personality
8. Physical status
9. Socio-economic status

Lack of time seems to be the greatest deterrent to assembling a complete case study. Another problem with the case-study approach is the danger of an overdiagnostic attitude on the part of the counselor and a sloughing-off of responsibility by the student. The student feels that "he has collected all this information about me; now he should tell me what to do." This is a likely attitude if the student does not have an active part in collection and use of the data. McDaniel, pleading for sharing records with students, and protesting the present widespread practice of collecting data by question-and-answer methods and then storing it away in a safe place, asks the challenging question: "Have we shared our records, data with them and made them full-fledged partners in this guidance process?" He states further, "We have the data but

we expect him to answer the questions" (109, pp. 354-355). If we want self-directive, mature individuals, then we must give them the facts they need to achieve their objectives. In the next section a method is developed for obtaining and using data cooperatively, so that the student feels that the data are his and not the counselor's. The personal-history form, along with test-selection methods and test-interpretation procedures, aims at sharing the data with the student. Client comments quoted in later sections of this chapter support this view.

Hundreds of summary forms for recording data useful in guidance processes have been developed. They vary in complexity from a card upon which a teacher records significant facts about his students to the elaborate case history made by the social worker.

The concern of this section is with survey forms of moderate length which can be filled in by the student. A widely used commercial form, the Guidance Summary Form by Bennett (13), is typical. This form covers general information, education, work experience, health, family, interests, self-evaluation, and vocational ambitions. It is of desirable length and contains frequent opportunities for self-analysis. Space is left at the end for the counselor's comments. It does not, however, request the student to state his problem in a concise manner. Furthermore, it does not give him an opportunity to specify problems other than vocational which may be equally pressing.

The Veterans Administration includes an Individual Survey in their Vocational Advisement Record. This form is a detailed record of personal data covering family status, present employment, education, present interests and hobbies, work history, vocational outlook, and administrative data. The Individual Survey was constructed for the counselor's use in the interview. The form is so worded that it would be difficult for a client to fill it out alone in the manner specified by the directives of the Veterans Administration (154). In counseling veterans, the writers have attempted at various times to have clients fill out the Individual Survey alone. The results have been fairly satisfactory with college students but not with non-college students, many of whom lack the motivation and verbal ability to comprehend the complexities of the form.

It is felt that the Student Information Summary incorporates the principal advantages of the other forms described above. It includes some unique features, also. The data requested cover a broad range of

STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER
Student Information Summary

The following summary will provide background information of value to you and your counselor in discussing your situation. Please fill it out carefully, answering those questions which apply to you.

Name Welsh, June Date 6/8/49
 Present Address Sigma Alpha Epsilon House Telephone DA-36158
 Permanent Address 418 East St., Tacoma, Wash. Telephone TW-0550
 Date of Birth 4/16/30 Place of Birth Tacoma, Wash.
 Age 19 Sex M Present Occupation Student

EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION

Circle highest grade completed: 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18

High School:

High school from which you graduated Fremont Tacoma, Wash. 6/3/47
Name Location Date of Diploma

Type of course Regular Curriculum Average Grade 3.27
 Best-liked subjects Biology, Chemistry, English, Languages, Literature
 Least-liked subjects Math
 Subjects with highest grades Biology, English, Languages, Chemistry, History
 Subjects with lowest grades Math
 School activities and organizations Editor of Paper + Yearbook, Honor Society, Football, Basketball, Tennis, Golf, Student Council, Dance + Social Committees, Hi-Y

Other Schools:
 List any other schools or classes attended, such as business, trade, night, correspondence, military:

College:
 List colleges or universities attended:

Name	Date	Major	Average Grade	Degree	Date of Degree
<u>Stanford</u>	<u>Sept., 1947</u>	<u>?</u>	<u>C+</u>		

FIG. 13.

factors relevant to life planning. The brevity of the items increases student motivation for filling out the form completely and accurately. The client is informed that this appraisal device is the first step in his problem-solving process. McDaniel has stated this idea very succinctly: "All data that are gathered for counseling purposes are as much the property of the counselee as of the counselor, and can only become

Best-liked subjects History, Art, Botany, German
 Least-liked subjects Econ.
 Subjects with highest grades Art, Botany, German, English
 Subjects with lowest grades Econ., Psych., Hygiene, ROTC
 College activities and organizations Chaparral, Daily, Class Econ.,
 Alpha Delta Sigma (Ad Society), Hammer & Coffin Society, E.A.E.

Check any of the following which apply to you:

Have selected major _____

Have not selected major X

Am satisfied with major _____

Am not satisfied with major _____

Am considering changing major _____

Your reasons for the above I have selected several majors, but
 became dissatisfied with each; now I am without one.

VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

List the occupations which you are considering now and which you have considered previously:

Occupations considered

Advertising
Cartooning or Comm. Art
Business

Reasons for considering

Interest; some ability; contacts
Interest; chaffie work; ability
contacts; money

Service Experience (if any) None

Date entered active service _____ Date of separation _____

Branch of Service _____ Rank _____ Kind of Work _____ No. Months _____

Work Experience

1. List any part-time, vacation, or temporary jobs you have held:

Hospital Lab. Assistant; advertising with theatre guide;
free-lance art work

(FIG. 13 continued.)

operative in terms of our objectives when they are effectively shared with the counselee" (109, p. 355).

The Student Information Summary outlines briefly the use of this form in counseling: "The form will provide background information of value to you and your counselor in discussing your plans. Please fill it out carefully, answering those questions which apply to you."

2. Indicate all full-time jobs. List your most recent job first:

Job held Dates

Employer Locality

Salary Duties

Job held Dates

Employer Locality

Salary Duties

In what ways, if any, have the above work experiences, both part-time and full-time, been of value to you?

LEISURE TIME INFORMATION

In what recreational and social activities do you engage? *all sports; go to dances, shows, parties*

List any clubs, organizations, or groups to which you now belong: *Sigma alpha Epsilon Fraternity; Alpha Delta Sigma Advertising Society; Hammer & Coffin Humor Society.*

List any special interests or hobbies: *art; golf; advertising*

Do you like to read? *yes*. When you have the opportunity, what do you enjoy reading? *When I have free time, I usually spend it drawing. I used to read all the time, but haven't read a book for enjoyment in over a year. I prefer non-fiction of any type.*

FAMILY INFORMATION
Marital Status: Single ☒ Married..... Separated..... Divorced.....

Indicate below, members of your family, including parents, husband or wife, brothers, sisters, and children.

Relationship	Age	Occupation	Years of Formal Education Completed
<i>Father</i>	<i>51</i>	<i>Reporter & Businessman</i>	<i>14</i>
<i>Mother</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>Housewife</i>	<i>14</i>
<i>Sister</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>Student</i>	<i>16</i>
.....
.....
.....

(FIG. 13 continued.)

The student also has an opportunity to check "yes" or "no" on personal problems he feels he would like to discuss with a counselor. He has an opportunity in the last section to indicate briefly his problem situation and why he is coming to the counseling center.

As indicated in the preceding chapter, the Student Information Summary is handed to the student at the end of the orientation period. This

procedure saves counselor and student time in the first interview. He is told that this form can help him think through some of the factors important in life planning. The form can help both the student and the counselor clarify the problems and the purposes of counseling.

The importance of this step is emphasized by Troyer's assertion that "even the most complete and valid cumulative record or case history is of limited worth unless the student is seeking to improve his bases for making decisions for the present and the future" (184, p. 289).

HEALTH AND PERSONAL INFORMATION	
Height	5' 8" Weight 160 lbs.
Indicate any health problem or physical defect which might influence your vocational planning.	
chronic sinus trouble — for what influence it might have.	
Have you had any counseling previously?	yes
Where?	High School
Any testing?	yes
Where?	High School and the Strong Vocational Inventory
Do you have any personal problems which you feel you would like to discuss with a qualified personal counselor?	
Yes	X. No
Briefly indicate your situation. In other words, what help do you wish to obtain from the Counseling Service?	
I'd like to understand the change in my interests which has taken place since I came to Stanford. This change has affected my grades very seriously, in the wrong direction.	

(FIG. 13 continued.)

This seems like a common assumption, but it is frequently overlooked by guidance workers using traditional personal-history forms.

The following student comment, taken from the Stanford Guidance Study, illustrates the value of the Student Information Summary in helping the student think through significant factors in vocational planning. Student 62 stated that "the best thing they did there was passed out the sheets."

It is felt that the preceding discussion supports the practice of using a case-history form in the counseling process. The following discussion

illustrates the nature of the initial interview and how the Student Information Summary is used along with counseling techniques.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCESS

The following steps correspond to the outline of the self-adjustive approach described in Chapter 4. These steps are (1) establishing rapport, (2) structuring, (3) discussion of problems, (4) selection of tests, (5) occupational orientation, and (6) psychometric orientation.

1. *Establishing Rapport.* The first step in the actual interview is described as "establishing rapport." Rapport could be defined as a state of reciprocal confidence and respect between counselor and client. Symonds defines rapport as "a personal relationship of mutual trust and respect based on a feeling of confidence and security in the other person" (178). These definitions mean substantially the same thing: that a counselor must build and maintain a warm, personal relationship with the client. The following are two important factors involved in the establishment of rapport:

1. *Reputation:* The counselor must "have a reputation for honesty, kindness, and keeping of confidences" (216, p. 132).

2. *Interest:* The counselor must feel and manifest a sincere interest in the student as an individual and must demonstrate willingness to consider carefully the problems of the student.

The first of the above two requirements for rapport cannot be established for the interview. Reputation, obviously, takes time to build up, but the counselor must be aware of the importance of this fact. The second factor, however, can be made manifest in the interview itself. This interest *must* be evident from the start, if the interview is to be successful. A good counselor always comes out of the office to meet his client. He often greets him with a friendly, courteous hand-clasp, and he always calls him by name as he escorts him into the office. A real interest must be reflected in the sincerity and genuineness of the initial greeting.

After the entrance, rapport can best be established by a brief period in which the student is put at ease. Perhaps the best technique is to open the conversation on some topic or hobby of special interest to the person interviewed. Such questions as "Who is going to win the game

this week?" or "How are you doing this semester?" sometimes break down shyness in a student. Another device suggested by Symonds is for the interviewer to associate himself in some way with the client's past experience. "A reference to common friends often makes an excellent bridge with which to span the gap. The discovery that both have lived in the same village, visited the same city, taken the same trip, enjoyed the same show, or attended the same school will serve as an effective means of gaining rapport" (178). This device is no doubt familiar to many counselors, and it is very effective.

A technique often used by social workers is also appropriate for counselors. It consists of having a "conversation piece" on one's desk: a ship model, a child's photo, an interesting gadget—something of interest which may attract the client's attention and serve to break the silence of the initial contact.

The above suggestions should not be construed to mean that counseling is to be regarded as a bag of tricks. Often, however, some simple device may be helpful in creating the warm, permissive atmosphere for which the counselor strives.

2. *Structuring*. After rapport has been established, the counselor begins this interview by a simple explanation of the type of relationship that exists between counselor and client. He structures it in somewhat the following manner:

We have found that this first interview is generally most fruitful when the student takes charge and tells the counselor the nature of his problem or the reason he came to the center. Many students find that the use of the Student Information Summary which, by the way, you have filled out very well, is valuable for use as a guide in talking. Then, as the student talks, the counselor tries to think *with* the student and then *together* they decide what the next step should be.

Several important points should be made here:

1. The counselor does not imply that the counseling is to be vocational counseling.
2. The counselor does not mention that the student will have to take some tests. Perhaps tests will not be in order if the problem becomes personal.
3. The counselor uses the general rather than the specific. He gives the student a chance to *decide* whether or not he wants to follow this procedure.
4. The Student Information Summary is used not by the counselor but by the client.

5. The locus of responsibility is from the very first placed on the client—and stays there.

3. *Discussion of Problems (Counseling)*. The *techniques* which follow in this unstructured, permissive interview are typically those of Rogers, and are summarized in Figure 14.

CLIENT - CENTERED Techniques

- 1 REFLECTION OF FEELING
- 2 SIMPLE ACCEPTANCE
- 3 STRUCTURING
- 4 SILENCE

FIG. 14.

1. *Reflection of feeling*: "To express in fresh words, the essential attitudes (not the content) expressed by the client, to mirror his attitudes for his own better understanding, and to show that he is understood by the counselor" (152, p. 31). This technique, which is simplicity itself in principle, is extremely difficult for counselors to acquire. It runs counter to their

previous experience. They are required to withhold their own judgment, their own evaluation, their own diagnosis, and (what they conceive to be) the solution to the situation. The counselor's attention is completely concentrated upon the problem of "what feeling is he expressing?" At no time does the counselor become so involved in the factual details of the client's statements that he fails to ask himself what it is that the client is expressing in the way of feelings and attitudes (152, p. 32).

Porter lists four bases for determining accuracy of reflection (130). These are:

- a. *Content*: "Reflecting content" is an error in counseling which consists of reflecting back to the student essentially the same words as used by the student. When the counselor does this, he does not convey understanding, but merely repeats blindly what has already been said. His reflection, moreover, is generally met with denial rather than acceptance.

S: I've always just considered medicine because my father always dictated to all us boys what we should be.

C: You've always sort of considered medicine because your father dictated to you and your brothers what you should be.

A counselor who uses such techniques is fortunate if the first interview lasts over five minutes. The counselor who has a "knowledge-of-acquaintance" in permissive techniques might reflect in the following manner:

C: You have the feelings that perhaps your father wasn't exactly fair in telling what you should be?

The above is an attempt by the counselor to get below the surface and to touch on the undercurrent of feeling expressed by the student. The counselor disregards the words of the student in favor of the feelings being expressed.

- b. Depth:* The counselor who fails to respond to the same degree of depth in feeling as expressed by the client is also not reflecting accurately. Some counselors are consistently too shallow in their reflections. Others are consistently too deep. An illustration follows:

S: I want to be an engineer, but I just can't drive myself for four long years without her. . . . I just can't do it. . . .

C: You'd like to be an engineer, but you'd also like to get married.

The above reflection is obviously too shallow. A more accurate reflection might have been:

C: It's just too long a grind without her.

On the other hand, the counselor might have reflected:

C: You just wouldn't be able to live without her for four years.

This reflection perhaps is "too deep" and might be met with denial or by a change of subject on the part of the client.

- c. Meaning:* Also of importance is that the counselor not *add to* nor *take away from* the meaning of the client's statement. An illustration of such procedure is as follows:

S: I just can't see myself as an accountant sitting at a desk all day.

C: You don't think you'd like the idea of having to balance budgets, and making profit and loss statements, day in and day out.

It is obvious that the client did not say all of the above, and yet the counselor has read a great deal into his statement.

The counselor might have taken away meaning also by a reflection of the nature of the following:

C: You just don't like indoor work.

To be accurate in reflecting the proper meaning on the surface appears easy, but too often the counselor responds from his frame of reference rather than from the client's frame of reference.

- d. Language:* Experience by many trained counselors indicates that the counselor should always use the language most appropriate to the situation. Here is a bad example:

S: I just seem to be shy with girls. I just can't be friendly.

C: This inferiority complex seems to be extremely active in these heterosexual relations.

The errors in this reflection are obvious and will not be commented upon.

The preceding examples illustrate the difficulty of responding accurately

in the client-centered technique, the difficulty, that is, of staying within the internal frame of reference.

2. *Simple acceptance*: This is the proverbial "mm-mm" response. It may take the form of "yes," "I see," etc. It is any type of response that indicates acceptance and understanding and encourages the client to go on.

3. *Structuring*: This is a simple explanation of the relationship which exists between client and counselor.

4. *Silence*: Nowhere in the literature has this technique been given its proper place. This, the writers feel, is one of the most difficult of all client-centered techniques. It is so hard to keep our mouths shut! This is true especially of teachers who have taught for many years. Counselors who feel embarrassment during moments of silence, however, will find that, with increased experience in counseling, the employment of the silence technique becomes less threatening and embarrassing.

It is during the silent periods of the interview, when the client has the stage and the spotlight is on him, that he is delving most deeply into himself and bringing out those insights which are most difficult to reach.

Client-centered techniques have been presented above to describe more fully the nature of the first interview in the self-adjustive counseling process.

It is appropriate at this point to present two of the three phases of the Rogerian client-centered counseling process, to illustrate their adaptations to self-adjustive counseling.¹ These phases are summarized in Figure 15.

3 PHASES OF COUNSELING PROCESS

- 1 Emotional Release
- 2 Development of Insights
- 3 Positive Planning and Action

FIG. 15.

1. *Emotional release*: First is the emotional release, or "catharsis." This may last for only a short time if counseling is rather directly educational or vocational in nature. It may, however, take much longer for the client to pour out his many feelings about his situation. It is im-

portant to remember that there is *no* typical case; each will vary in content and time required.

2. *Development of insights*: After emotional release, development of insights normally follows. This phase could be defined as the increased understanding of the self and the perception of relationships between the self and its world.

¹ It is noted that only two phases of the client-centered counseling process are described here. The third phase is treated in Chapter 8, dealing with the synthesis interview.

The client's insights about himself and his world, however, will eventually center about those aspects of his self-in-relation which are creating the most tensions. It is very possible that the student will come to see his problems as being *personal* in nature, and that general therapy (sometimes with and sometimes without tests) will proceed from that point.

A study conducted at the University of Minnesota and described by Bixler demonstrates the above idea (17). Of fifty students who came to one counselor who utilized the client-centered approach, eleven, or 22 per cent, decided that their problems were entirely different from what they had thought. They came seeking vocational or educational guidance and decided during the interview that their problem was, instead, emotional in character. Of the remainder, twenty-two, or 44 per cent, continued as vocational cases, but also recognized emotional difficulties in their prior concept of the problem. This study certainly demonstrates the necessity for the counselor to have the skills of a clinician as well as a knowledge of psychometrics and occupational information.

It is not impossible, moreover, that student and counselor will decide together that none of the available tests is suitable for helping the individual in his problem. A student of one of the writers, for example, saw his problem as being one of deciding between music or literature as a major course of study for graduate work. He had had much study in each of the areas, experience in each, and he felt that the available tests would be of no benefit to him. This case was completed without the use of any tests and by counseling only.

4. *Selection of Tests.* The student, having been oriented as to the limitations and potentialities of tests, generally has a pretty fair idea about what tests can do for him. Toward the end of the first interview, when the client has examined those factors which appear important in making decisions, he may decide that he needs certain information about himself. He may want to know, for example, whether or not he possesses certain aptitudes. He may also desire to take an interest test to see how his interests compare with those of successful people in various occupations. It is at this point, and not before, that the counselor offers him the opportunity to take tests. He suggests that "sometimes they are helpful and sometimes not."

Ordinarily, those who adhere to the client-centered point of view would not utilize tests in counseling. Rogers, however, suggests that tests may have a function in the nondirective interview:

. . . When the request for appraisal comes as a real desire of the client, then tests may enter into the situation. . . . It should be recognized, however, . . . that the significant elements with which the counselor deals are the emotional attitudes of satisfaction, doubt or fear which the test creates. It is not the factual test results, but the attitudes of the client toward the test results, which are important in the counseling process (146, p. 142).

Our experience is that the use of such information has a place in self-adjustive counseling as long as this information is desired by the client and will facilitate his self-direction and self-actualization. Perhaps this point of view could best be explained in the following way: The goal of counseling, the basic hypothesis, should be the same—that the individual be allowed to make his own decisions and grow toward self-direction, adjustment, or maturity. However, the road toward maturity is sometimes rough and obscure, and it may involve detours. It is at this time that the client may feel the need for a road map as well as information about the capacity of his vehicle to stand the trials of the trip. It is at this point that the counselor should stand ready to provide such information to the client. The use of this information is self-adjustive, it is felt, since it is desired by the client and is used by him to make his own decisions.

The following section discusses the process of test selection, a process consistent with the goals described above. This process stresses active client participation in test selection.

The precounseling orientation prepares the student with information about the types of tests available and the kinds of problems that tests can help solve. With this background of test knowledge, the assumption is made that test selection can be a real growth experience for the student, an experience in which he can further explore himself in a non-threatening atmosphere.

It is assumed also that clients are *capable* of selecting their own tests. Seeman cites evidence from child-study research in food, reading material, and sleeping selection as evidence for the soundness of the principle of self-selection (156, pp. 327ff.). In this connection Troyer asks the question (184, p. 293): "A student with a sense of need for self-appraisal might well develop some insight into the value of certain procedures. Can this be done unless he has some part in the selection of the means?" The writer maintains that students have sufficient verbal ability to comprehend the principles involved in test

selection and are able to verbalize their needs. It is assumed that this ability, combined with precounseling exploration of answers which tests can give, makes the client capable of adequate test selection.

This self-selection process includes the following steps:

1. The client decides what types of information he needs to solve his problems.
2. The counselor structures the categories, with the aid of the Test Selection Guide, and may refer to the precounseling orientation.
3. The counselor indicates the specific instruments that are available. This is done in a manner which allows the client freedom to accept or reject them.
4. The counselor recommends the instruments which seem best to him from a technical standpoint.
5. The client is free to express his feelings about the proposed tests. The counselor reflects and clarifies these feelings.
6. If additional tests would be helpful, in the counselor's opinion, he suggests the tests which may provide facts to solve the problem. The client is free to accept or reject them.
7. Client and counselor examine the battery jointly for adequacy and coverage.
8. The counselor does not add tests nor does he attempt to modify the mutual selections.
9. The client selects his own time for taking the tests (when practicable).

The Test Selection Guide, shown in Figure 16, is a list of approximately fifty tests. This particular guide was devised for use at the college level. A similar form can be constructed for high-school use.

The test categories on the guide are well marked and labeled with nonemotional titles. Space is left under each category for adding tests desired by the client or recommended by the counselor. The counselor minimizes the use of the word "test," which is a negative emotional symbol to many students who associate tests with classroom quizzes. The counselor stresses the nonjudgmental nature of these "inventories" of abilities and interests.

After the tests have been selected, the client is introduced to the psychometrist. The Test Selection Guide is handed to him for guidance in test administration and as a permanent record of tests administered.

Opponents of client participation in test selection state that the client

STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER

Test Selection Guide (COLLEGE FORM)

Name Welsh, Jim Age 19 Class Sophomore
 Date 6/9/49 Course _____ Counselor Barnard
 Remarks _____

Interest Tests:

_____ Allport-Vernon Study of Values
 _____ Strong Vocational Int. Blank
 _____ Gregory Academic Interest Inv.
 _____ Kuder Pref. Record, Vocational
 _____ Kuder Pref. Record, Personal

Scholastic Aptitude Tests:

_____ A.C.E. Psychological Test
 ✓ _____ Ohio State Psychological Test
 _____ Wechsler-Bellevue Scale
 _____ Stanford-Binet (Revised)

Special Aptitude Tests:

_____ Bennett-Fry Mechanical Comp.
 ✓ _____ Meier Art Judgment
 _____ Graves Design Judgment
 _____ Minnesota Clerical
 _____ Geo. Wash. Educational Apt.
 _____ Stanford Educational Apt.
 _____ Engineering-Physical Science Apt.
 _____ Iowa Legal Aptitude
 _____ Geo. Wash. U. Medical Aptitude
 _____ Geo. Wash. U. Nursing Aptitude
 _____ Stanford Scientific Apt. (Zyve)

Manual Dexterity and Spatial Relations:

_____ O'Connor Tests
 _____ Purdue Pegboard
 _____ Revised Minn. Paper Form Board

Reading Tests:

_____ Minn. Speed of Reading Test
 _____ Iowa Silent Reading Test
 _____ Nelson-Denny Reading Test

Reading Suggestions:

_____ Studying Effectively (Wrenn and Larsen)
 _____ Building Self-Confidence (Wrenn)
 _____ Now You're In College (Popenoe)
 _____ How to Read Rapidly and Well (Wrenn and Cole)

Achievement Tests:

_____ Michigan Vocabulary Profile
 _____ Cardall Arithmetical Reasoning
 _____ USAFI Subject Tests

Cooperative Achievement Tests:

_____ Mechanics of Expression
 _____ Effectiveness of Expression
 _____ General Culture
 _____ Contemporary Affairs

USAFI GED Tests:

_____ Effectiveness of Expression
 _____ Social Studies
 _____ Natural Sciences
 _____ Literary Materials

Iowa Placement Examinations:

_____ English Training
 _____ Math. Training
 _____ Physics Training
 _____ Chemistry Training
 _____ Foreign Language Aptitude

Personality Inventories:

_____ Bell Adjustment Inventory
 _____ Bernreuter Personality Inv.
 _____ College Inv. of Academic Adj.
 _____ Cornell Index
 _____ Mooney Problems Check List
 _____ Minn. Multiphasic Pers. Inv.

Miscellaneous Tests:

✓ _____ Wrenn Study Habits Inventory
 _____ Tyler-Kimber Study Skills Test
 _____ Personal Health Inventory (Byrd)

FIG. 16.

does not have an extensive knowledge of tests which has taken the counselor years to acquire. But there is evidence that clients can select tests judiciously. Seeman, in an extensive study of client participation in the selection of tests, concluded that "this [his data] would appear to reinforce the notion that clients select the tests in a discriminating manner according to their needs" (156, p. 338).

A frequent argument heard against client selection of tests is the "physician analogy." This argument affirms that a doctor does not ask you if you want to take a basal-metabolism test, and he does not tell you the kinds that are available. He merely assigns certain laboratory tests to give him facts for a diagnosis. Similarly, expert counselors know more about tests, predictions, and human abilities than clients. The counselor knows what instruments are best for them.

It is the opinion of the authors that the fallacy involved here is this: The doctor assumes responsibility for the decisions concerning treatment and, to a large extent, the outcomes. His approach is diagnostic from his frame of reference. The doctor prescribes treatment on the basis of reliable and valid diagnostic procedures. This diagnosis results in the successful prediction of recovery. If the patient gets well he credits the doctor; and conversely, if he does not get well he blames the doctor.

The counseling situation differs somewhat, in that it is not solely diagnostic and prescriptive. The instruments in counseling which correspond to medical techniques are not as reliable and valid for accurate predictions as are comparable medical procedures. The day may come when counseling can become very diagnostic and prescriptive. This will be true probably, (1) when we know the origin of human behavior in greater detail, (2) when we have valid instruments with which to predict behavior, (3) when we have dependable techniques of social manipulation with which to control behavior, and (4) when we have universally satisfying value systems to know what behavior should be.

In counseling, the *client* takes responsibility for the decisions. The student, with the counselor's help, makes his own diagnosis of the problem in the light of the data. Furthermore, since feelings and attitudes toward tests are involved, it seems that the client should be satisfied with the selection of the test battery. If he selects them, with the counselor's technical assistance only, he has few reasons to project blame if the tests do not give him the answers he expects.

Rogers emphasizes the danger of choosing tests too early, since it may imply that the counselor is going to solve the problem (151). In the experience of the authors, counselor selection of tests intensifies this feeling. A student (No. 9) whose tests had been selected for him said, in response to a question on aspects of the guidance program

least valuable to him, "Testing. Might be helpful to *him*, but to me they're not."² Here the client assumes that the tests were for the counselor's use. His rejection of all the tests is apparent in this comment.

Bixler and Bixler indicate the value of client responsibility for selection of a personality test, for example, in the following statement: "The client's struggle concerning whether or not he should take a personality test often leads to deeper self-understanding" (17, p. 8).

Most clients come for counseling expecting tests to be a vital part of the process. If they do not take the number and kinds of tests desired, they may be dissatisfied. Seeman reported, in a study at the University of Minnesota Counseling Bureau, that "of the 170 clients . . . 145 checked as one of their reasons for coming to the Bureau the statement, 'I want to take the aptitude tests so I can find out what vocation to go into'" (156, p. 341).

Self-acceptance is a value emanating from a skillfully conducted test-selection interview. Bordin and Bixler make the observation: "As he tries to puzzle things out, perhaps struggling with anxieties about the possible adverse results of taking a test, the counselor helps him to clarify his feelings and to overcome the obstacles to accepting himself" (20, p. 364).

This process may be illustrated by a recorded interview excerpt from Seeman's study (156, p. 340):

C: This math test would give you an indication of your background in math and also help predict how a person is likely to do in our College of Engineering.

S: I'm a little scared of math. But (*pause*) that would give me an idea of where I stand now in my math background. Right?

C: That's right.

S: Well, I think I've got an idea of where I stand now in my math background; it's one of my weaker points. But I've always been told that if I work at it, I could do well in it. But I don't know.

C: It's hard for you to know about what others say concerning your potentialities.

S: That's right. At times in math, I've done very well when I applied myself a little more. But then at other times I didn't do so well and it just seemed like I hated it. And as a result, well, I got mighty low marks.

C: You really had some ups and downs in math.

S: Yes, that's sure. Well, it seemed to make a lot of difference as to the instructor I had. Some would tell me that I—well, in junior high school

² Data from Stanford Guidance Study.

I was told that I was quite hopeless with it, and that sort of discouraged me. So I let it go for a year and then went to summer school to—well, to do what I'm doing now, to find if I could do it or not. Well, I got a B in it. So my math background now, I don't think, I know just about where I stand in that, I think.

C: You feel that the test wouldn't be necessary because you can size it up for yourself.

S: I can size it up pretty well for myself, that I'm not very high in math.

C: Umhum.

S: Well, on the other hand, maybe it wouldn't be a bad idea to take it.

C: You're a little undecided on that one, aren't you?

S: Yes . . . so I'd know actually just how bad off I am.

C: So even though you don't think you're going to do well on it, you'd like to take it.

S: Even though I don't think I'll do well on it at all.

This excerpt illustrates another significant point. Each test is a possible take-off for discussion of related personal problems.

Seeman found great individual differences in client reactions to the test selection. Many participated easily. On the other hand, some found the process difficult. Seeman found eight out of twelve clients performing self-selection without difficulty while the remaining four "revealed varying degrees of indecisiveness and dependence upon the counselor" (156, p. 341). Seeman discovered also that "those clients who displayed indecision in selecting tests also revealed a greater incidence of indecision in other phases of the interview" (156, p. 345). This suggests that, assuming adequate precounseling on attitudes toward tests, clients' indecisiveness about test selection is not so much situational with tests as an habitual reaction pattern to situations requiring decisions. This state of affairs offers an excellent lead for therapy.

The following interview excerpt illustrates the preceding observations on difficulties with test selection (156, p. 342).

C: This test will give you an indication of your general ability for college work. We find that it helps to predict how you're likely to do in our liberal arts college here. This second one is an intelligence test which will compare you with the general run of people; it'll come out with a comparison of your intelligence with the intelligence of the population in general.

S: Well, I'd just as soon take them. Is there any charge for them?

C: No, not for students here at college.

- S: Well, I want to know. What do you think? I'd just as soon take any ones you suggest. Frankly—I mean, the more I can find out about myself the better I feel—without going too far, that is, I mean, not taking every single one on the list.
- C: Yeah. That's basically why I'm going through these with you, so that you can get an indication of what you can learn about yourself; that may help you to be selective about the tests you want.
- S: Well, any way you think. I mean, I don't know too much about the tests. If you think I should have it, I'll take it. I don't know—I don't think—I don't care—if I have to take it I'll take it. If you think I should take it, I'll take it; put it that way.
- C: You'd like to depend on my judgment in this.
- S: Yeah, that's right. I mean, taking tests like this doesn't bother me.
- C: Well, the information is going to come to you eventually and you'll be the one to use it. That's why I'd like to make this a cooperative venture and why I'm not just laying out a bunch of tests.
- S: I've always wanted to take that test. I think I should.
- C: You'd like to find out where you stand—
- S: Yeah, I think I would.
- C: All right. Would you like me to check it?
- S: Yeah!

The following interview illustrates the relative ease with which some clients accept responsibility for deciding their own test battery (156, p. 341).

- C: This test is a test which gets at your ability to judge art principles. It's not a drawing test; it's a test where you select in each case the better of a pair of pictures just to see whether you understand the art principles involved in the pictures.
- S: I see. Well—that wouldn't have anything to do in the line of engineering drawing, though—it wouldn't help me out there, would it?
- C: No, it won't predict how a guy will do in that. We do have a test which helps give you a prediction of that nature.
- S: Well, I think if I were taking any drawing, it would be some kind of engineering drawing.
- C: You've pretty well ruled out other types.
- S: Yes.
- C: This test (*pointing to another one*) does give some indication more along lines of blueprint, layout work, engineering drawing. It gets at your ability to visualize various sizes and shapes of figures, the kind of thing you need when you do a blueprint.
- S: I want that one then.

The evidence from the Stanford Guidance Study and others presented in this chapter indicates that client self-selection of tests is a technique which should be fostered in counseling. The preceding discussion has emphasized the following advantages which the client-participation method seems to have over counselor selection of tests:

- (1) Greater acceptance of self through overcoming anxieties
- (2) Facilitation of self-understanding
- (3) Encouragement for taking responsibility for his own problem
- (4) Frequent verbalization of a motive different from the one of test taking
- (5) Greater satisfaction that the battery selection fits the situation

5. *Occupational Orientation.* Since the importance of utilizing occupational information for certain problems was stressed in the orientation phase, discussed in Chapter 5, it is unnecessary for the counselor to persuade the client to use occupational literature. The counselor refers to the materials available and how they can help the client solve his immediate problem. He is introduced to the Career Study Outline. Copies are made available in the occupational reading room.

The counselor also stresses that the client may complete as many outlines as he desires and that these outlines are to be brought along to the synthesis interview. Here the outlines are discussed and their information integrated into the total process.

If practicable, the occupational reading room, counselor and client should go together to where specific materials are indicated and where he may be introduced to the special librarian or occupational counselor.

6. *Psychometric Orientation.* Whenever possible the counselor not only discusses the testing process with the client but escorts him personally to the testing room and introduces him to the psychometrist. At this point the counselor leaves the client with the psychometrist or secretary who arranges testing appointments. Care is taken to establish good rapport and diminish anxiety about tests.

EXAMPLE: AN INITIAL INTERVIEW

The six steps of the initial interview are illustrated in the following verbatim interview. The reader will note that the forms discussed in this and succeeding chapters pertain to the case of Jim Welsh.

THE CASE OF JIM WELSH

*First (Initial) Interview**1. Establishing Rapport*

C: (*meeting client in reception room*): Hi, Jim. I'm Dr.——, your counselor. Do you want to come down to my office?

S: Glad to know you, Sir. Thanks—let's go.

C: Have a chair, Jim. Say, you're one of the cartoonists for the *Chappie* [a college magazine], aren't you? I've noticed some of your work—it's really fine.

S: Thanks. Yeah, I really enjoy it. In fact, my cartooning is something which is related to the reason for my coming to see you. You see, I came about a particular problem I had. It seems that ever since I came to Stanford my interests have been kind of changing. After the group orientation yesterday, you told me to fill out this student summary form. Here on the back page—maybe this will tell you better what I'm trying to say.

2. Structuring

C: Um-hm. Looks like you did a complete job here, Jim. This information is of great help, particularly later on in the process when we put all the information together, we will get a little better idea of the total picture.

S: Yes, I spent quite a lot of time on that. . . . There's a lot of stuff in there, all right.

C: It's kind of hard to get everything in this last question here, isn't it? It's hard to put this particular situation on paper. Would you like to expand on this last section here or on any of the other sections of this form? Perhaps you'd just like to tell me in your own words about your situation?

3. Discussion of Problems (Counseling)

S: Yes, I'm not real clear as to what the problem is, and I thought we could talk about it some but I did try to give you a general idea on the back of the sheet here. . . . But you will notice on the front I put all my different schools, my different things, and different courses I have been interested in—things of that nature.

C: Um-hm. But you are still confused, though, as far as your plans are concerned.

- S: Yes. . . . I don't know just exactly . . . you know, I say there that I'm a sophomore now at Stanford here and next year I'm going to be a junior, and I'm kind of worried about . . . well, I've got to make some plans now. You know we have to choose a major here when we are at Stanford, and I'm not sure I really know what I want to do here.
- C: You are not quite ready to choose a major; but, yet, you feel it's time you should be making some decisions.
- S: No, well, it's more involved than that. Well, you see, I've always . . . at least, my mother and dad have always felt that I ought to be a doctor; and, one of the things you have to do when you are a doctor is to do well in things like biology and chemistry; and, I just haven't done too well in those subjects. I like them all right, and I always thought that because I liked them that would be a good sign, but I find that . . . that I like other things, too. Uh, well, for one thing, next year, for example, I've been offered a job to be editor of the *Chappie* magazine. I've been offered that job, because I've written some pretty good cartoons for them. In other words, I have pretty good ability in that field, I think. It's been a pretty good diversion here from all this "book larnin" we do here at Stanford, to be able to work on these things.
- C: You're pretty confident of yourself in art, is that right?
- S: Yeah, in fact, I got a file back in the, back in the fraternity—I belong to the S.A.E. fraternity, you know—I got a file back there, and I got several hundred cartoons in there, and I think I might be able to use them someday.
- C: Um-hm.
- S: And, so I guess . . . I don't know . . . well, what do you think about this thing? Do you think, do you . . . have you got any good tests that would tell me whether I would be a good artist or not?
- C: Why, yes, we have some tests which may help you in your decision. We mentioned them in the orientation; they are merely guides or helpful indicators. We can't put too much confidence in them, but certainly they might help you crystallize your interests for one thing; and, secondly, they may help you decide whether . . . certain branches of art, such as cartooning, would be a good possibility.
- S: Well, that might be helpful to me, but I'm not sure it will tell me all the things I want to know about . . . for one thing, my grades haven't been too good here, and I've been kind of worried about that. You know, I was an A student in high school, and my average here is about C+. Well, I know it is going to be kind of hard to get into medical school even if I did want to go—with that kind of grade.
- C: You think some tests might help you there?

- S: Well, I was hoping they would. You know I heard a number of the kids come over here, and they say you take a lot of tests and so forth and so on; and, some of them give you quite a bit of information about yourself.
- C: Well, there is one test in particular which you took when you came into Stanford which may give use some leads as to whether the medical school will still be a good possibility.
- S: You mean that Stanford Aptitude Test?
- C: Yes.
- S: Yeah. I heard . . . I got a card through the mail from the registrar's office that I was in group one in that test. Was that pretty good?
- C: Yes, quite good, Jim. Would you like us to get your score on that test?
- S: Uh-huh. That will be swell.
- C: Perhaps we can decide definitely on some tests for you. Before, however, is there anything you'd like to discuss of a more general nature?
- S: Well, there are a couple of other things I'd like to ask you. First of all, I suppose . . . you are a psychologist, you talk to a lot of kids here . . . and, another thing, I got a girl friend and she is going to Fresno State. She is majoring in art. I don't know, do you think a husband and wife ought to be in the same kind of occupation, or is it a good thing if they aren't? I suppose . . . is there any rule that you ought to follow?
- C: It seems like occasionally it is desirable to have common interests, and again, on the other hand, it is desirable to have interests which complement one another, too.
- S: Yeah, that's the reason I've been thinking about this art business for quite some time; and, then, the reason it became even more vivid to me was the fact that I got a letter the other day from an advertising agency up in Tacoma, Washington, where I live; and they had seen some of my cartoons and offered me a job next fall if I wanted to take it; and that means, of course, I'd have to quit Stanford and go up there. And . . . it sounds awful good. Sounds like the kind of thing I'd like to do; but, well, first of all I'd disappoint my parents. They had always counted on my being a physician or doctor or something. And, then, well, I'd like to finish Stanford, too, you know. It's a pretty good school, and so on . . .
- C: Well, you have several possibilities facing you, then, haven't you? One is to continue in medicine like your parents want you to; and, secondly, to investigate some other major, possibly art, since that is your main secondary interest; and the third possibility is to leave to take this apprenticeship or in-service training in this art agency.

4. *Selection of Tests*

S: Yeah, that's about it all right. Ah . . . how about these tests? Can they help here?

C: Well, occasionally they are helpful, sometimes they aren't. Here is a list of some we have here at the center. You recall from the orientation we had, tests are generally divided into about six major categories—some interest tests and scholastic-aptitude tests which we spoke of earlier, and some of these special-type tests such as art judgment and mechanical comprehension and so on, and manual dexterity, special tests, and achievement—finding out what you can do now. And we have some other miscellaneous tests such as personality and reading and study-habits inventories. Do any of these seem to be what you are looking for?

S: Do you think that study-habits inventory would help me in my . . . to find out why I'm not doing so well and so forth?

C: Well, it helps some students to pin down the area of difficulty.

S: Uh-huh.

C: It is a little ten-minute check list which goes over about six main areas of study habits, and it affords one a systematic check on his reading and study.

S: Boy, these are sure a lot of tests, you know. How many are you supposed to take?

C: Well, it varies with each individual situation. Some don't use any at all, others quite a few. The general number of tests taken is around five, usually an interest test, since in your particular situation you are kind of unsure of actually what you really would like, and generally a scholastic-aptitude test, which you have already taken, and perhaps a test or two in the special-aptitude area, particularly in this art area that we spoke of. You see, that just about covers the major points that we want for a solution of this thing.

S: Why, I don't know about the interests tests. I know pretty well what my interests are. I don't know if that would be much help or not, but I'd like to find out what my . . . just exactly what I can do. I know I have an interest in a thing and so forth, and I know I'm a pretty good cartoonist, but along other aspects of art, too, other than cartooning.

C: Uh-huh.

S: How about an art test?

C: Yes, here is the Maier Art Judgment Test. Now, that's not strictly an aptitude test. It's a little more on the achievement-test side. It's a series

of pairs of pictures, and you make a judgment concerning which of those two is better according to a certain criterion of art, such as balance, composition, and perspective, etc. And your responses are compared to successful art students.

S: Uh-huh.

C: And in commercial art and in fine arts. It gives you a little better idea of how your preferences of art are compared to art students.

S: Yeah. That seems like it might be interesting. How about taking that one, then?

C: All right. Let's check that one, then, shall we?

S: O.K. And, then, you are going to get these scores on the Stanford Test for me?

C: That's right. We'll check that one.

S: And, let's see now, what else is there that we ought to consider?

C: What do you decide about the study-habits inventory? Would you like a check on that area?

S: Yeah, that's the one I wanted. I want to take that one, too. Let's see, that's three altogether, isn't it? Do you have to take five or . . .

C: Oh, no, that was just an arbitrary figure I picked as being a general guide—any number from one up to eight or ten, depending upon how much time you have available and how much information we need that the tests can give us.

S: Well, I don't have too much time. You see, I'm working on *Chappie* now; and, of course, this possibility of being editor on that, I want to keep pretty busy on that. I want to do a good job. Maybe that is enough. What do you think?

C: Perfectly all right with us. You'd rather leave it as it is here, then, eh? We'll have a check on scholastic aptitude to help us definitely on this problem of medicine, and we'll have some indications of how your judgments of art compare with art students, and we'll get a check on study habits.

S: How about this medical-aptitude test, here? Wouldn't that be helpful to me?

C: The medical aptitude presupposes more biology, I think, than you've had. It compares you to those who have completed premedical training, those who are about to enter medical school.

S: You mean they have already had three or four years of college?

C: That's right—with heavy emphasis in the biological sciences. I believe you've had one course in biology.

S: Yeah. Probably, that'd look pretty bad against these guys, huh?

C: We can get the same answers, however, Jim, from the Stanford Aptitude which you took. It's highly related to success in medical training.

S: Uh-huh. Well, that sounds O.K., then; let's take those three tests, then. Is that O.K.?

5. *Occupational Orientation*

C: All right. Surely. Oh, there is one other item we might want to mention, Jim. I remember in the orientation we mentioned that we have a complete vocational library which has a series of pamphlets and college catalogues. You might be interested in looking up some of these art schools, especially this cartoonist school in New York. I'm sure we had a catalogue on that.

S: Yeah. I'd like to get some more information on that. I've just heard about it. This friend I have in New York who has been going there . . . do you think you might have . . . you got a pretty good list of schools and so forth in there?

C: Yes, we do; and on the way down to the testing room we'll drop into the library and I'll show you around. You'll be particularly interested in a new pamphlet on cartooning. It is rather complete. It gives the opportunities, salary, and some of the difficulties in getting into the occupation.

S: Yeah. That's just what I'd like, I think. We will stop there on the way in, then? Can I go in there any time, or do I have to make an appointment?

C: You can go in there any time. We have a person on duty part time. His hours are posted on the door, and you are welcome to go in there any time; however, I'll show you how to use it in case he is not there.

6. *Psychometric Orientation*

C: Well, shall we go then? After the library, we'll stop at the testing room to meet Miss Jones, our psychometrist. She's a nice person and will be glad to help you in any way she can in taking these tests. O.K.?

S: Yeah. Thanks a lot. Let's go.

SUMMARY

The initial interview in self-adjustive counseling will ordinarily consist of six steps: (1) establishing rapport, (2) structuring, (3) discussion of problems, (4) selection of tests, (5) occupational orientation, and (6) psychometric orientation. The principle of flexibility suggests that the initial interview will not always proceed in so systematic a fashion as described, but generally most of these steps will be present. Steps 5 and 6, above, prepare the client for the next phase of the process.

Chapter 7

THE EXPLORATORY PHASE

The exploratory phase is that part of the counseling process in which the student ordinarily performs his occupational research, takes his tests, and explores other resources helpful in problem solving. This is done in the interim period between the initial and the synthesis interviews.

In problems which do not have vocational elements, and in cases where tests and information are not needed, the student still employs periods between interviews for reflective thinking on his problem. Counselors have been aware that the period between interviews is sometimes more productive of self-reevaluation and change than the interview itself.

OCCUPATIONAL RESOURCES

Occupational information is defined by Shartle as "accurate and usable information about jobs and occupations" (158, p. 1). Many studies are reported on the collection, distribution, and importance of information, but few writings are found concerning the *use* of occupational information in the guidance process, particularly in counseling. Brayfield asserts that "descriptions of specific media and materials abound, but discussions of basic principles underlying their application are conspicuous by their absence" (23, p. 485). Occupational specialists, such as Shartle (158) and Stead (168), have developed "occupationology"¹ into an elaborate, scientific methodology and body of facts. Carter, in reviewing a decade of literature on interests and job orientation, cited only two articles on techniques for using this voluminous information in the interview (29).

Among guidance workers it is axiomatic that two principal kinds of occupational information—about the person and about jobs—must be

¹ A term attributed to Harry Kitson.

explored prior to counselor-client synthesizing and planning. Authorities on the use of occupational information—Shartle (158), Hahn (67), Cowley (38), Strang (172), Wrenn (215), and Brayfield (23)—affirm the necessity for self-knowledge of interests and aptitudes prior to occupational exploration. Evidence is accumulating to indicate that occupational courses and individual study add little to effective occupational planning without prior individual testing and counseling (23, 170).

In this chapter, the authors illustrate the inappropriateness of the concept “dissemination of occupational information.” The word “disseminate” connotes sowing or spreading. The authors believe in the necessity for motivation and intelligent search for answers to specific planning problems. This is an alternative to the “agrarian approach” for sowing occupational information with the hopes that some may take root. One must specify the exact procedures which facilitate learning of occupational information and which help create positive attitudes toward occupational-information services.

Cowley lists three aspects to the problem of occupational orientation (39):

1. Pre-counseling exploration in the form of jobs, courses, talks and conferences.
2. Educational-vocational choice including choice of a college, a major, and a tentative occupational field.
3. Placement with consideration of a specific job.

While precounseling exploration and placement are important phases of occupational orientation, this book is concerned, primarily, with the second aspect—educational-vocational choice.

Organization and Operation of an Occupational Library

In the initial interview, the counselor ordinarily introduces the student to the vocational library. This orientation implies extensive knowledge, on the counselor's part, of occupational materials and methods of classification. The following outline contains some organizational and operational problems of an occupational library. The problems and solutions are presented in the form of a check list² to make the material more functional.

²This check list is an adaptation of a list published by Brammer and Williams in *Occupations* (22).

I. *General questions:*

- A. What problems do we face when organizing and operating a vocational library?
- B. What information do we need, and how do we get it?
- C. How should we file the material?

II. *A check list:* Varied local needs preclude ready-made answers to the preceding questions. This list, however, is designed to ensure consideration of the basic problems involved in organizing a complete vocational library.

A. What are the purposes of our vocational library?

- 1. Providing information for vocational and educational planning
- 2. Placement
- 3. Source file for occupational research
- 4. Information for teaching units

B. What are the characteristics of those using the library?

- 1. Age, educational, and occupational levels
- 2. Types of probable employment or further education
- 3. Expected frequency and duration of visits

C. Where and how do we start?

- 1. Adopt the most suitable filing plan (see section E)
- 2. Gather bibliographies of free and inexpensive material (see Table II and III)
- 3. Select materials to cover the occupational fields most useful in your situation
- 4. Follow suggested ordering procedures under section G, 1
- 5. Retain those materials which meet the criteria of a good occupational monograph (see (131) for an outline of these criteria)

D. What kinds of occupational information should we obtain?

In addition to occupational bibliographies, many organizations publish useful occupational literature. Writing to organizations in the categories indicated in Table III will yield much valuable information. Ask your school librarian for lists of scientific societies, companies, and professional organizations, to obtain addresses. A helpful government publication on the topic is *Counselor Competencies in Occupational Information* (187).

E. What types of filing systems are available?

1. Alphabetical

- a. Simple alphabetical. Consists merely of filing the information alphabetically by job title or by the occupations in your community. It is simple to use and maintain, especially if the library is small. All items should be shelf-marked. Folders and topics are added as materials accumulate, but when materials expand

TABLE II. BIBLIOGRAPHIES OF OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

Publisher and cost	Comments
<i>What to Read Kit of Occupational Bibliographies</i> . Washington, D.C.: B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau. \$3.	Comes in perforated sheets with four bibliographies to a sheet. References annotated as to suitability for various school levels. Source and price given for each publication listed. Annotated to the <i>DOT</i> system which has since been altered slightly.
<i>Occupational Pamphlets: An Annotated Bibliography</i> . Gertrude Forrester. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1948. \$4.	Widely used and very complete, with about 4,000 pamphlets listed which were published before 1948. Includes plans for filing the material, although not in detail.
<i>Occupations for Girls and Women: Selected References</i> . Washington, D.C.: Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor, and U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. 30¢.	
<i>Government Monographs on Occupations</i> . W. J. Greenleaf, Division of Vocational Education, U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. Free.	All of these government publications contain extensive bibliographies of useful, authoritative, and inexpensive material.
<i>Occupational Outlook Publications</i> . Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. Free.	
<i>Occupations, Professions, and Job Descriptions</i> . Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents. Price List 33a, 2d. Ed., July, 1949. Free.	
<i>Guidance Index</i> . Chicago: Science Research Associates. \$4 per year.	A monthly annotated bibliography containing a list of briefs and pamphlets.
<i>Occupational Index</i> . Peapack, N.J.: Personnel Services. Quarterly, \$7.50 per year.	Contains brief annotations of current material. Write the publisher also for a list of <i>Occupational Abstracts</i> .

greatly or detailed breakdowns are needed, the alphabetical system becomes unwieldy. Neal (126) describes one type of facility using this plan.

- b. Parker. Alphabetical grouping according to broad functions. May be less prone to filing error. Allows for easy subdivision. Good with small or moderate-sized units.³

- c. Science Research Associates (SRA). Materials are classified in

³For detailed classification scheme, see Parker (127).

TABLE III. TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONS PUBLISHING OCCUPATIONAL MATERIALS

Kind of organization	Comments
Professional associations and technical societies	<i>Example:</i> American Medical Association. These publish information concerning requirements, training, certification, and professional standards in special fields.
Industry organizations	<i>Examples:</i> National Association of Manufacturers. General material about activities such as manufacturing, insurance, sales.
Educational institutions	<i>Examples:</i> Boston College and Simmons College. The material outlines the program of study leading to entrance in a field as well as general information about the opportunities.
Individual companies	<i>Examples:</i> Montgomery Ward, Ford Motor Company. Tables of organization, information about the requirements and desirability of work in a specific firm.
Federal and state agencies	<i>Examples:</i> Departments of Education and Employment. These are usually sources of free or inexpensive information about labor conditions, outlook, and job descriptions.
Chambers of Commerce	Local opportunities, trends, directories of retailers and manufacturers.
Commercial publishers	See Forrester (57) and Kitson (98, 99, and 100) for lists of approved commercial publishers. Some of these publish occupational periodicals valuable for browsing purposes.

seventy general categories. The various headings are filed alphabetically, *e.g.*, Agriculture, Rail Transportation. Contains a cross-reference system.⁴ See Yale (218).

d. Michigan Plan. A good alphabetical system for a moderately large school library. Based upon 162 fields of work. Contains printed cross-reference cards. Available commercially.⁵

2. Classified

a. Census classification. Composed of eleven major occupational

⁴ Available commercially from SRA, 228 South Wabash, Chicago 4, Illinois. Price includes file folders, check-out cards, and manual.

⁵ Sturgis Printing Co., Box 329, Sturgis, Michigan.

groups under which are 451 titles. These groups are altered decennially. The categories are too broad for the library carrying detailed information.⁶

b. Dictionary of Occupational Titles. Uses the *DOT* numerical code scheme.⁷ The most useful system for large libraries. Can be expanded indefinitely and still be systematic. A complex system, however, needing an alphabetical locator such as Volume I of the *DOT*, or a card file. Contains industrial as well as occupational categories. Needs at least a part-time person for maintenance. Handville (73) gives suggestions for adapting the *DOT* to occupational filing purposes. See footnote 7 for publisher of prepared filing materials for this system.

c. Dewey Decimal System (school libraries). Includes materials as an integral part of the school library. This places them in the hands of trained librarians; thus the materials usually are well catalogued and maintained. On the other hand, materials are scattered through the library according to its classification system and usually do not receive the special attention they deserve. Many schools keep two files, one in the school library the other in the guidance department.

F. What equipment is necessary?

1. Table and seating facilities
2. Bookcases—for college catalogues and occupational books
3. File cabinet—at least one four-drawer file for letter-size sheets and pamphlets. This file may be placed on a dolly for ease in moving from room to room for workshop purposes (see Hershey (78) for a description of a mobile library).
4. File folders and labels
5. Locator system
 - a. Standard 3- by 5-inch cards in box. Sample card heading:*

Artist, commercial; see Artist folder in drawer 1
See also: Advertising, drawer 1

b. Typed or mimeographed sheet of occupational-folder subject headings.

c. Dictionary of Occupational Titles, Volume I⁸

⁶ See (36) and (88) for adaptations of the census classification.

⁷ The Chronicle Press, Moravia, New York, publishes a set of 254 folders labeled for the *DOT* system.

⁸ If the *DOT* system is used, the *DOT* can serve as a locator file. This system is discussed in section *E*.

6. Bulletin board—for Civil Service announcements, clippings, cartoons, etc.⁹

G. How can we operate our library efficiently?

1. Ordering materials. Local experience has indicated that mimeographed form post cards are timesavers when ordering routine materials (college catalogues, free pamphlets, etc.). For materials pertaining to occupations, two copies are requested to cover such exigencies as loss, cross filing, and loan problems. See the samples of form post cards below. On the other hand, it is often possible, by using a personal letter on the institution letterhead, to obtain inexpensive materials free or at a discount. This is true especially with nonprofit organizations which publish at cost and are pleased to have their material available at an educational institution.
2. Mailing lists. It is well to get on as many mailing lists as possible. An efficient procedure is to add a line requesting mailing-list privileges to all letters as illustrated on the first post card sample below.

Gentlemen:

We would appreciate two copies of your publication and other materials you publish which would be valuable in counseling veterans and college students.

In the event that you have a mailing list, may we request that you place us on this list of future publications? Thank you.

Yours truly,
(Name and address of
your facility)

Gentlemen:

We are endeavoring to keep our educational library up to date. We would appreciate a copy of your general 19__ catalogue and bulletins of special departments. Thank you.

Yours truly,
(Name and address of
your facility)

3. Keeping materials current. By virtue of a position on a mailing list, one can be assured of receiving notices of new publications. It is advisable to maintain a publisher file where one can record alphabetically the names and addresses as well as brief descriptions of the type of materials published. For additional lists of publishers and sources, see Kitson (98, 99, and 100). Since much occupational literature goes out of date rapidly, the counselor must check his vocational information against current bibliographies and government statistics.

⁹ Karp has a good discussion of bulletin boards (94).

4. Checking out materials. Whether or not a check-out plan is practical will depend on local factors, such as help available and case load. Few complaints are received about the Stanford Center's policy of no check-outs. It would seriously reduce the advisory function of the occupational specialist to carry the additional clerical work involved.
5. Keeping the staff informed on current and new materials. This is one of the prime functions of the library. It may be achieved by desk-routing new material, weekly staff meetings, reports, and weekly bulletins.

H. What elements constitute a complete vocational library?

1. A vertical file of classified occupational information on specific jobs.
2. School and college catalogues. College catalogues are filed by state, while special schools are filed by subject, e.g., "Art schools."
3. A browsing shelf and "idea" materials for those still "shopping." These materials are primarily general overviews of occupations and industries, occupational periodicals, and collections of brief job descriptions.
4. Directory service, containing business and school directories, such as Lovejoy's *Colleges and Universities*, Brumbaugh's *American Universities and Colleges*, and Thomas's *Register of American Manufacturers*.
5. Special file, containing subjects on how to get jobs, apprenticeship standards, minority problems, labor problems, wage and price trends, and regional business information.
6. Counselors' professional library, containing reprints and books of value to the staff for reference and professional advancement.

The books and articles reviewed in the check list and in the bibliography offer detailed answers to many specific organizational problems.

A vocational library can be an attractive and valuable place for students to do their life planning. The self-direction of students may be developed further through a vocational library so organized and administered that students may go directly to the files, find their information, and replace the materials, without the intervention of a staff member.

The Community Survey

Since most published occupational information deals with national and regional trends, it is necessary that the counselor know methods

OCCUPATIONAL SURVEY OF A CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY
OUTLINE—DOCUMENTARY

Introduction: The purpose of this outline is to summarize major occupational trends in a California community—trends which would be used by a vocational counselor if he were working in an educational institution in or around this community. Items marked with an asterisk are especially suitable for illustration in graph form. Numbers in parentheses refer to references in the bibliography for this figure.

- I. Description of the community
 - A. The major city in the community
 - 1. General description
 - From *California Blue Book* (4)
 - From Chamber of Commerce bulletins (22)
 - 2. Facts about the city (government, climate, hotels, population, recreation facilities, transportation)
 - From *California Blue Book* (4)
 - From Chamber of Commerce bulletins (22)
 - B. The county
 - 1. Area, topography, and climate
 - 2. Income
 - 3. Minerals, mining, manufacturing
 - 4. Other activities
 - From *California Blue Book* (4)
 - *C. Average level of schooling, city and county
 - Sixteenth Census, Population*, Vol. II, Part 1 (19)
 - II. Population trends
 - A. State of California
 - 1. —special Census reports, U.S. Bureau of Census, made since 1940 (8)
 - 2. —composition of population, age groups (9, 11, 14, 19)
 - 3. —racial composition of the population (9, 11, 14, 19)
 - *4. Compare population growth: city, county, state
 - *5. Compare racial composition: city, county, state
 - B. The major city (same as above)
 - C. The county (same as above)
 - III. Occupations
 - *A. Compare the twelve occupations in order of importance, 1940 (state, county, city), (19)
 - IV. Industries
 - A. Describe briefly the major industries in the community (4, 22)
 - *B. Compare the first twenty industries in order of importance, 1930 (state, county, city)
 - “Persons 10 Years and Over Engaged in Gainful Occupations” (14)
 - *C. Compare the first twenty industries in order of importance, 1940 (state, county, city)
 - “Persons 14 Years and Over Employed in Industries” (19)
 - V. Agriculture
 - A. General description, 1940 (4)
-

FIG. 17.

-
- *B. Trends in agriculture for county, 1910-40 (16)
 - 1. Number of farms
 - 2. Average size of farms
 - 3. Per cent of land in farms
 - VI. Summary of manufacturing for major city, 1940 (18)
 - VII. Summary of retail trade for major city, 1940 (15)
 - VIII. Summary of wholesale trade in major city, 1939 (17)
 - IX. School enrollment in major city, (3, 22)
 - (Show trend in high-school enrollment here by comparing 1940-1947 issues of (3))
 - X. Summary and conclusions—implications for education

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 3. *California School Directory*, 1947-1948. Berkeley: California Society of Secondary Education, December, 1947.
 4. State of California, Superintendent of Documents, Department of Finance, Printing Division. *California Blue Book*. 1940.
 5. State of California, Reconstruction and Reemployment Commission. *Estimated Range for Population Growth in California to 1960*.
 6. State of California, Department of Employment. *Report of Activities*. Monthly bulletins, 1940-1947.
 7. GOOD, CARTER V. *A Guide to Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools in the United States*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1945.
 8. Special Census of (City, County or State), Series P-SC, No. 147. U.S. Bureau of the Census.
 9. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Thirteenth Census, Population*, Vol. IV, 1910.
 10. *Population-Occupation Statistics*, Vol. IV, 1910.
 11. *Fourteenth Census, Population*, Vol. III, 1920.
 12. *Fourteenth Census, Population-Occupation*, Vol. IV, 1920.
 13. *Fifteenth Census, Manufacturers*, Vol. III, 1929.
 14. *Fifteenth Census, Population*, Vol. III, Part 1, 1930.
 15. *Sixteenth Census, Census of Business, Retail Trade*, Vol. I, Part 3, 1939.
 16. *Sixteenth Census, Agriculture*, Vol. I, Part 6, 1940.
 17. *Sixteenth Census, Wholesale Trade*, Vol. II, 1939
 18. *Sixteenth Census, Population*, Vol. II, Part 1, 1940.
 19. *Sixteenth Census, Population*, Vol. II, Part 1, 1940.
 20. *Sixteenth Census, Population*, Vol. III, Part 2: *The Labor Force*, 1940.
 21. *Sixteenth Census, Service Establishments*, 1939.
 22. Chamber of Commerce information bulletins.
 23. Bureau of Census bulletins on Seventeenth Census.
-

(FIG. 17 continued.)

for obtaining local data. Local-job information is rarely available in a form suitable for counselor use. Figure 17 is an outline of a documentary occupational survey for a California community prepared by the authors. A similar outline could be constructed for other communities. Such information is vital for counseling and placement of terminal students.

The Occupational Counselor

The student's first contact with occupational data is in the orientation. Since the first interview is of an exploratory and clarifying nature, the client usually specifies the kinds of facts he needs in his problem solving. These questions provide leads for further motivation on the use of occupational information provided in the library. After the first interview, the client is taken to the vocational library and introduced to the materials.

Another refinement of the counseling process is the introduction of an occupational counselor who specializes in the maintenance of the vocational library and helping students find and use data pertinent to their problems. It is recognized that this counselor, in most schools, will not be a full-time specialist. He may be an advanced student or staff counselor with part-time duties in the vocational library. The counselor's suggested duties are:

1. To familiarize the student with the vocational library
2. To assist the student, if he so desires, in finding specific facts from the masses of data available
3. To explain the use of the Career Study Outline (Figure 18) and to assist the student in completing this outline
4. To expand the student's concepts concerning occupations and to suggest further areas of exploration based upon his interests

This counselor is most effective, of course, when he employs the best principles of educational psychology in the learning of occupational information. The utility of guidance in learning is stressed by Gates, *et al.*, who list the following principles (62, pp. 352-353):

1. The value of guidance increases for a relatively short time with amount, and then decreases. . . .
2. Initial guidance is clearly superior in most of the experiments, with early interpolation the second most valuable position. . . .

STANFORD GUIDANCE CENTER
Career Study Outline

Occupation_____

This is a guide to assist you in your study of possible vocational goals. We suggest that you glance through this outline before reading the pamphlets in the vocational library. It will help you to know what to look for in an occupation. From your reading, jot down essential information you will want to consider in your planning. Ask the counselor for information you cannot find and for additional references in the university libraries. Since occupational information changes frequently, it would be advisable to record the date and the source of the material.

	Information	Date and Source
1. Opportunities:		
Current opportunities	_____	_____
Probable opportunities	_____	_____
when I graduate	_____	_____
2. Probable salary:		
Starting	_____	_____
After 5 years	_____	_____
Probable maximum	_____	_____
Special benefits such as	_____	_____
insurance and retirement	_____	_____
Security	_____	_____
Excellent	_____	_____
Good	_____	_____
Fair	_____	_____
Poor	_____	_____
3. Hours:		
Work week	_____	_____
Regular or irregular	_____	_____
4. Entry and related jobs	_____	_____
5. Qualifications and restrictions:		
Sex, marital, racial, etc.	_____	_____
Organization memberships	_____	_____
Licenses required	_____	_____
Examinations required	_____	_____
Special personal	_____	_____
qualities required	_____	_____
6. Training:		
Where obtained	_____	_____
Length	_____	_____
Cost	_____	_____
Entrance requirements	_____	_____
Scholarships available	_____	_____
Special information	_____	_____
7. Advantages and disadvantages of this occupation:		
(Use other side for additional notes.)		

FIG. 18.

3. Too much guidance is probably detrimental if it reduces the learner's initiative and decreases his sense of personal responsibility for the performance. . . .

The occupational counselors observe these principles when they aid the student in the early phases of occupational research and then put him on his own resources as soon as he understood the sources and methods of gathering facts about occupations. Occupational counselors should be warned of the danger of offering too much help and taking initiative away from the student.

Several writers mention the need for such specialists as occupational counselors. The Veterans Administration (190) calls them "vocational consultants." From his extensive counseling experience, Christenson cites the need for counselor direction in vocational libraries: "In assisting the client to solve his problems, the counselor should direct him to specific occupational information sources. Browsing in the occupational library, while highly desirable for other purposes does not serve a useful function in counseling. It is likely to confuse rather than help" (33, p. 14). In a controlled study on the influence of information on vocational goals of college men, Speer and Jasker concluded: "From these data, it appears that the independent reading of occupational literature was not, in itself, of much value to the individual in helping him to select suitable occupational goals. Guided reading, directed by an experienced counselor and subsequently discussed with the counselor, has resulted in more suitable choices" (166, p. 17). In an annotative article on counseling methods, Kilby proposes that an accessible library is of more value than the counselor supplying information which he has looked up before the interview. He implies the need for occupational counselors when he asserts that "particularly high school and youthful college students, will be so immature toward the entire world of work as to react with complete helplessness" (96, p. 185). It is suggested that the counselor reflect the helplessness and then teach the client to use the occupational file independently.

The Career Study Outline

The Career Study Outline, Figure 18, was devised by the writers as an aid to client occupational research. Students in the past have come to the writers with the request for some device to organize and appraise their occupational thinking. They want to know what is relevant and important among the masses of data presented in the occupational

folders. The writers feel that if clients are to be self-directive in their use of occupational information, they need some device to aid them in their research.

The present outline resulted from a study of student questions, the structure of good occupational monographs, and some of the outlines suggested by other writers, such as Hoppock (84, p. 49), Wallar (194), Veterans Administration T.B. 7-100 (190), Greenleaf (65), and Hahn (68, p. 42), and the NVGA Occupational Research Division (131). A decade ago Cowley, Hoppock, and Williamson (39), in their American Council on Education Student Personnel Series, constructed one of the first lists of basic facts about an occupation which a college student should know.

The contribution of this Career Study Outline is its simplicity and brevity. A lengthy outline may be valuable for extensive research by students of occupations, but for most students it would be too detailed. Many important elements are omitted from the Career Study Outline, but the writers' experience indicates that the usefulness of an outline is inversely proportional to its length.

The occupational counselor suggests that the student fill out an outline for each tentative occupation he selects. These are brought to the next interview, where they are included in the planning brochure. It is believed that the outline has the following advantages over the more common indiscriminate reading and sporadic note taking:

1. Directs occupational research, thus keeping motivation high
2. Ensures adequate coverage of salient information
3. Prevents time wasted on nonessential reading
4. Directs attention to the date and source of information
5. Prevents memory distortion by providing a permanent record for future planning
6. Aids the counselor in evaluating the scope and intensity of the client's research
7. Provides an additional sensory cue, writing, to aid memory
8. Directs attention to training requirements and need for educational research

TESTING RESOURCES

The psychometrist has an important influence on client attitude. Personal touches such as flexibility in reading directions, establishing

5. Norm group
6. Error, probable or standard
7. Test administrator
8. Date of administration
9. Unusual test administration conditions

The Veterans Administration's Test Record and Profile Chart is an excellent example of a profile which covers the above criteria except for reporting the standard error of the test score. This omission is not a serious one, since few test manuals report the standard error. The error, however, must be computed from the standard deviation of the distribution upon which the norms were based. The significance of the standard error is discussed in the next chapter on test interpretation.

The psychometrist can use the reverse side of the Psychometric Report to record comments upon test behavior of the client. This is a significant part of the report and one frequently neglected by busy psychometrists. Unusual test conditions such as noise, anomalies of lighting, and interruptions influence client attitudes and probably client performance.

In addition to these situational factors, the psychometrist is in a good position to notice personal reactions to tests, especially those which might cast doubt upon the validity of the sample of the client's behavior. Fatigue factors are important to consider here, and a note should be made of observations and client comments concerning specific tests.

The Counselor's Test Check List

Measurement concepts must be understood thoroughly, not only by the psychometrist but also by the counselor. Mastery of measurement concepts is necessary for selection as well as interpretation of tests. A check list of factors to consider in the selection and use of tests is presented in Figure 20.

The student who feels a need for review of measurement principles will find the following references valuable: Cronbach (41), Freeman (58), Goodenough (64), and Smith (164). Data on the values and limitations of specific tests may be obtained from Buros's *Third Mental Measurements Yearbook* (26). A complete discussion on the uses of aptitude, interest, achievement, and personality tests as applied to vocational counseling may be found in Super (175).

THE COUNSELOR'S TEST CHECK LIST

- I. *Standardization*: Statistical considerations
 - A. Reliability: Should be at least r of .90—refers to the *precision* and *consistency* of measurement
 - How calculated? (split-half, test-retest, alternate form?)
 - Is standard error specified? How large is it relative to range of scores?
 - Is sampling of group adequate on which reliability was determined?
 - B. Validity: Refers to the predictive power of a test item validity
 - Were items analyzed logically and statistically?
 - How were the items selected? Do they discriminate?
 - Whole-test validity: statistical validity
 - What specific validities does the test have?
 - What are the factor loadings?
 - How were the validities determined?
 - Was the validation group separate from the norm group?
 - What is the criterion? Is it valid and reliable?
 - Does the test correlate well with the criterion—about r of .60?
 - What is the test useful for? Diagnosis, prediction, valuation?
 - Does it measure the function intended? Is it titled correctly.
 - Face validity
 - Does the test look like that aptitude which it is supposed to measure?
 - Example: mechanical.
 - Important for motivation of clients: does it motivate?
 - C. Norm groups: Refers to the standardizing group
 - Is group sufficiently large?
 - Is the standard group representable?
 - Does the standard group resemble the persons with whom you wish to compare the subject?
 - II. Reputation
 - A. How well known is the author and the publisher?
 - B. How much equipment does it require?
 - III. Ease of Administration
 - A. Preparation
 - How much special training is required to administer the tests?
 - How much equipment does it require?
 - B. Directions
 - Are they understandable?
 - Are they brief yet detailed enough for adequate administration?
 - C. Timing
 - Clearly indicated?
-

FIG. 20.

-
- Does timing interfere with getting adequate sample of behavior?
 - Does timing destroy motivation or cause emotional difficulties?
 - D. Alternate forms available? Are they equivalent?
 - E. Manual
 - Is the manual complete enough for administration, scoring, interpretation, and standardization information?
 - Does it give the purpose and development of the test?
 - F. Is the format and quality of materials attractive and arranged with consideration for eye strain, readability, and ease of administration?
 - IV. Ease of Scoring
 - A. Objectivity
 - Is more than one answer possible?
 - Does the judgment of the scorer enter at any point?
 - B. Key
 - Is the key simple to use? Can the test be machine scored?
 - C. Time
 - Can the test be scored in a very short time? Is it self-scored or machine-scored?
 - V. Interpretation
 - A. Norms
 - Adequate for age and grade?
 - Usable form? Standard scores or percentiles?
 - Are they tentative, arbitrary, or well established?
 - B. Meaning of scores
 - Are directions complete for interpreting scores?
 - Is there statistical evidence for using student's obtained score as a valid measure of his true score?
 - C. Record sheets and profiles
 - Is there a convenient method for recording and presenting scores?
 - D. Application of results
 - Are there suggestions for applying the test results to improvement of grades, prediction of success, and diagnosis of difficulties?
 - VI. Economy
 - A. Monetary cost
 - What is the per-pupil cost of this test?
 - Does the usefulness and accuracy of the test justify the cost?
 - B. Time costs
 - Is the administration and scoring time within reasonable limits?
 - Do the test results justify the time expended?
 - Can the test be administered within a class period?
-

(FIG. 20 *continued.*)

REFERRAL RESOURCES

The counselor finds that often the student's problem calls for the help of other personnel experts. How the counselor structures the need for referral determines to a large extent the value of the special help. When a referral appears to be needed, the reasons should be discussed with the student. The student must convince himself that he will benefit by the additional service, or he will consider it an imposition and react negatively. Instead of saying, "I think you ought to see the school nurse about that," it would be more effective to say, "The nurse might be able to help us on this problem. Would you care to make an appointment with her?" Thus, the student feels that he is making the decision, yet his hopes for a solution are not inflated.

The school librarian will get frequent referrals for occupational and educational information. In many schools and colleges, the vocational-information center is maintained by the library staff. The greatest problem is selection of appropriate reading materials. The counselor must assume most of this burden, however, since librarians are not trained in occupational counseling. When practicable, it is a good idea for the counselor to accompany the student to the library where he can point out especially helpful pamphlets and books.

The speech clinician and audiometrist are valuable resources for the student with minor speech defects and hearing loss. Gross defects will have been detected before the counselor works with the student; but, lesser conditions, however, such as a lateral S, will go undetected until a discriminating counselor brings the condition to the attention of the student. This requirement presupposes familiarity with speech disorders; such knowledge should be part of the counselor's equipment. Manuals which will be found helpful in recognizing functional speech disorders are Johnson (91), Van Riper (192), and West (201).

In public schools and junior colleges, the school psychologist can help the counselor in the appraisal of students on whom group tests are inappropriate. Treatment suggestions for emotional problems through the medium of the case conference are important contributions of the school psychologist. If the counselor feels that he is counseling a student with problems too involved for his competencies, turning the student and his records over to the psychologist would be the safest action.

The institutional placement officer is one of the most frequent sources

of help to the counselor. He works closely with the United States Employment Service and other public agencies which help students find satisfying entry-level positions with good advancement possibilities. The placement officer usually keeps a part-time job file for students who find it necessary to work while in school. The local public employment office is the best referral source for educational-vocational problems of out-of-school youth. The state employment service, in cooperation with the United States Employment Service, maintains counseling and testing services for job seekers.

In public institutions, the school social worker, also called the "visiting teacher," is a valuable resource for data about the out-of-school activities of students, particularly students' home conditions. The social worker is trained in case-work techniques as well as classroom procedures. Ordinarily, the social worker has been a teacher prior to social-work training. The school social worker acts as liaison between the school and community agencies such as the juvenile court, the council of social agencies, and the community welfare council. Malnourished, underclothed, or otherwise underprivileged students coming to the counselor's attention can be helped through the school social worker. The school welfare and attendance officer often carries out these responsibilities in the absence of such a worker.

The school physician can assist the counselor with students whose problems appear to hinge on physical-health guidance. Frequently, the counselor needs a preliminary eye examination while working with a reading problem. Information on sexual needs, even though the counselor feels equipped to give it, is more likely to be accepted when coming from an authoritative health source such as the school nurse or doctor.

A referral source, often overlooked because it is unknown to counselors, is the local service club. Some clubs, such as Kiwanis, have vocational-guidance committees. These consist of business and professional men who are happy to interview students concerning their occupation. They are willing to participate also in career days and assembly programs.

BIBLIOTHERAPY

The writers have found that recommending to the client certain books which relate to his problem often is a helpful adjunct to the

counseling process. This technique, referred to as "bibliotherapy," adds another element to the exploratory phase. In terms of problem-solving theory, it offers the client another resource in addition to tests, occupational information, and referrals which he can utilize in the data-gathering phase of problem solving.

The following is a bibliotherapy reference list which has been used by the writers. It is divided into sections relating to types of problems which often come up in counseling. The books referred to in this list do not necessarily constitute the best references available. The practicing counselor should develop his own list to include those books which he himself has found to be particularly helpful.

BIBLIOTHERAPY REFERENCE LIST

1. *Children and Adolescents*

BARUCH, DOROTHY, *New Ways in Discipline*.

CRAWFORD, JOHN, and WOODWARD, LUTHER, *Better Ways of Growing Up*.

DICKERSON, ROY E., *Growing into Manhood*.

DICKERSON, ROY E., *So Youth May Know: Sex Education for Youth*.

DREKERS, RUDOLF, *The Challenge of Parenthood*.

WOLF, ANNA, *The Parents Manual*.

2. *Marriage*

DREKERS, RUDOLF, *The Challenge of Marriage*.

LEVY and MONROE, *The Happy Family*.

MAGOUN, F. ALEXANDER, *Love and Marriage*.

STRAIN, FRANCES, *Love at the Threshold*.

3. *Religion, Ideals, Ethics*

ALLPORT, G., *The Individual and His Religion*.

BLANTON, S., *Faith Is the Answer*.

EMERSON, R. W., "Self-Reliance" (an essay).

FOSDICK, HARRY EMERSON, *On Being a Real Person*.

FOSDICK, HARRY EMERSON, *Twelve Tests of Character*.

JOHNSON, WENDEL, *People in Quandaries*.

LIGON, *Their Future Is Now*.

WEATHERHEAD, *Psychology and Life*.

WEATHERHEAD, *The Mastery of Sex thru Psychology and Religion*.

WILSON, WOODROW, "When a Man Comes to Himself" (an essay).

4. *Mental Hygiene and Personal Problems*

CHAPPELL, *In the Name of Common Sense.*

GROVES, E. R., *Understanding Yourself.*

HORNEY, K., *Our Inner Conflicts.*

HORNEY, K., *The Neurotic Personality of Our Time.*

JACOBSON, *You Must Relax.*

KRAINES and THETFORD, *Managing Your Mind.*

LEIBMAN, J., *Peace of Mind.*

MAGOUN, F. A., *Balanced Personality.*

MENNINGER, K. H., *The Human Mind.*

MORGAN, *How to Keep a Sound Mind.*

OVERSTREET, *The Mature Mind.*

PEALE, N., and BLANTON, S., *The Art of Real Happiness.*

STRECKER and APPEL, *Knowing Ourselves.*

THORPE, L., *Personality and Life.*

TRAVIS and BARUCH, *Personal Problems of Everyday Life.*

5. *Personal Efficiency and Life Planning*

ADLER, M., *How to Read a Book.*

BIRD, C., *Learning More by Effective Study.*

WITTENBERG, RUDOLPH M., *So You Want to Help People.*

WRENN, G., *How to Read Rapidly and Well.*

WRENN and LARSEN, *Studying Effectively.*

Books such as the above should be selected in much the same manner as are tests in counseling. When the client expresses need for information on a problem which is treated in a certain book, then the counselor can outline briefly just what contribution the book can make to the client's situation. The client should feel free to accept or reject the suggestion, and the counselor should in no way imply that a certain book is the "answer" to the student's problems. Further research is needed in the skillful employment of bibliotherapy in counseling.

SUMMARY

During the exploratory phase between the initial and the synthesis interviews, the student explores himself through tests and reflection, the world of work through the occupational library, and other resources appropriate to the solution of his problems.

The positions of occupational counselor in the vocational library and psychometrist in the testing laboratory are key influences on client attitudes and often determine the success or failure of counseling.

In the exploratory phase, also, the client will often need data or assistance from specialized sources such as reading, speech, medical, placement, or social-work specialists. The counselor must be familiar with these resources and be skillful in making referrals. Bibliotherapy as a technique of counseling is relatively new. The Bibliotherapy Reference List provides an additional information resource for individual data gathering.

Chapter 8

THE SYNTHESIS INTERVIEWS

The *synthesis* interviews in counseling are generally devoted to bringing together four types of information by the client:

1. Information about himself, much of which he discussed in the unstructured first interview
2. Information from tests which will be interpreted to him by the counselor
3. Information about the world of work, which he (not the counselor) has gathered in the vocational library
4. Information from other special resources

The synthesis interview deals largely with the integration by the client of the above information so that he can make wise choices. These sources of information are collected in the initial interview and in the exploratory phase.

Often the synthesis interview is not just one interview but a series of interviews between which further exploration takes place. For purposes of exposition, only one synthesis interview is presented here, but it should be assumed that often there are several more.

This synthesis interview consists ordinarily of three phases: test interpretation, discussion of occupational information, and synthesis of the information from tests, personal histories, interview data, and occupational readings.

TEST INTERPRETATION

Before discussing specific techniques of permissive test interpretation, some viewpoints and principles are presented as background. This is necessary because of the historical controversy over the use of tests in counseling and the manner in which they should be employed.

Test-interpretation techniques are determined largely by the coun-

selor's philosophical orientation. One of the first complete discussions of test interpretation in counseling was presented by Williamson and Darley in 1937.

The recommendations upon which prognoses are based must be in terms of alternatives so that the student may make his own choice. It is at this point in the case work that the counselor translates his two basic principles, about prediction for success in training and prediction based upon the characteristics of goal groups or occupational groups, into terms that the student can understand in relation to his own problems [*italics theirs*] (209, p. 175).

Later these authors continue in this same vein:

The counselor must begin his advising at the point of the student's understanding, *i.e.*, he must begin marshaling orally the evidence for and against the student's claimed educational or vocational choice. . . . The counselor uses the student's own point of view, attitudes, and goals as a point of reference or departure. He then lists those phases of the diagnosis which are favorable to that point of reference and those which are unfavorable. . . . The counselor always tells what a relevant set of facts means, *i.e.*, their implications for the student's adjustment, in other words he always explains why he advises the student to do this or that; and he does the explaining as he orally summarizes the evidence (209, p. 135).

In a book published a few years later, Williamson explains his diagnostic method by example: "As far as I can tell from this evidence of aptitude, your chances of getting into medical school are poor; but your possibilities in business seem to be much more promising. These are the reasons for my conclusions" (206, p. 140).

During the last ten years, the views of Williamson and Darley appear to have changed from an extreme, diagnostic, measurement-centered viewpoint to a greater concern with client attitudes and reactions to the facts and predictions. Darley's recent publication on the interview illustrates this changing view (46).

Another influential viewpoint on the place of tests in counseling and on the techniques of the interpretation has come to be known as the "Rogerian." In 1946 Rogers wrote: "By every criterion then, psychometric tests which are initiated by the counselor are a hindrance to a counseling process whose purpose is to release growth forces. They tend to increase defensiveness on the part of the client, to lessen ac-

ceptance of self, to decrease his sense of responsibility, to create an attitude of dependence upon the expert" (146, p. 141). Rogers indicated, however, in the same publication, that occasions do arise when the client wants information concerning his aptitudes and interests and may request a test with interpretation. The client may "reach a point where, facing his situation squarely and realistically, he wishes to compare his aptitudes or abilities with those of others for a specific purpose. Having formulated some clear goals, he may wish to appraise his own abilities in music, or his aptitude for a medical course, or his general intellectual level" (146, p. 142).

Combs goes so far in this direction as to suggest a separate interpretive counselor for referral in the event that tests are indicated by the client (34). Then the client returns to the nondirective counselor for clarification and acceptance of his attitudes toward the data.

The two basic points of view presented above agree on goals but are divergent in methods of attaining them. The Bixlers have amalgamated these two points of view (18). The list of principles to follow are compatible with their experience.

Counselors must be aware of the effect of test-interpretation methods on feelings of satisfaction with self and the guidance service. The following principles are presented to serve as criteria for evaluating test-interpretation procedures.

Principles of Test Interpretation

1. *Structuring.* After the client has expressed his curiosity about the test results, the counselor structures the test-interpretation procedures by explaining the limitations of tests and their values for giving certain types of answers and leads. Super stresses the nonverbal structural aspect—the permissive atmosphere—which the counselor constructs largely by his attitude (175). Thus, the client feels free to react affectively to the tests. Bixler stresses the importance of structuring when he asserts: "How the process of vocational guidance is structured to the client will affect his reaction to this method of test interpretation" (18, p. 150).

2. *Exploration.* The counselor would avoid many mistakes if he would ease into test interpretation by exploring the client's attitudes toward any or all of the tests. Covner warns, concerning this point, "As an introduction to interpretation it was frequently found helpful to

sound out a client on his reactions to the tests. His mode of response served as a guide and warning to the counselor as to what sort of session test interpretation would be" (37, p. 71).

3. *Meaning of Scores.* The counselor must first ascertain the client's understanding of the purpose of the test being discussed. He must know the differences between interest, aptitude, and achievement measures. This prevents the client from making the common error of interpreting interest tests as ability tests.

4. *Neutrality.* The counselor avoids reacting to the results. He must be careful not to give opinions or impressions of pleasure or displeasure (18). One hears counselors say, "The results look pretty good," "I think this means that . . . ," and "You ought to be able to get through college with at least average grades." Super states the positive aspect: "For the client to formulate and express these ideas himself is much more effective than for the counselor to do so for him; the former constitutes the achievement of insight, while the latter may be no more than indoctrination" (175, p. 557).

Darley, on the other hand, sees a disadvantage in placing too much responsibility on the client for interpreting his scores and finding suggestions from the data: "Many books on guidance insist that the counselor must not *tell* the students what to do. While such a generalization seems unsound, since it emasculates most of the purpose of data collecting and since it would be of no assistance to a student who needs help in making a decision, it is still true that the student who chooses one from among several suggested plans of action will feel a more active participation in planning with the counselor" (45, p. 179).

The question might be raised, "Well, what do you do if the client insists on your opinion in addition to the interpreted facts?" A categorical answer is difficult. The safest approach would be to handle the request nondirectively and to reflect the feeling of the request. This might lead to further statements or admissions of the client concerning his inability to see the meaning of the interpretation and would set the stage for further exploration of the client's feelings. If time is an important factor, and if the counselor suspects that resistances might develop by giving the appearance of evading the request, he might state his opinion in the form of several alternatives which the data suggest, as Darley has indicated above (145). The counselor tells the client that his opinions are based on the data only, and that how the client feels

about the test results is important, too. A restructuring might be indicated at this point, also.

5. *Participation.* Much interaction between client and counselor seems to be desirable so that the counselor knows at all times that he is "with" the client, not ahead or behind. Dressel, in a controlled experiment on amount of client participation in test interpretation, found that "in general, a high degree of client participation was accompanied by better self-understanding and satisfaction with the counseling received" (52, p. 296). He used a test of self-understanding and a questionnaire for the satisfaction measure. This difficulty in staying with the client when the counselor dominates the interpretation is emphasized.

Dewey has made participation one of the central principles in his educational philosophy (49). According to Dewey, learning is an active process in which the learner must set his own purposes, initiate the activity to carry out the purposes, reflect on the consequences of the action, and adjust future behavior and purposes to conform with his experiences. This activity sequence implies not only client participation but client leadership and responsibility for the interpretive activities.

6. *Traits vs. Scores.* Results can be presented to the client in terms of traits or abilities instead of numerical scores. This reduces the "test" emphasis and stresses the self-reference of the results. To the writers, there is a difference between referring to "your high scores on the Stanford Aptitude Test" and saying, in terms of ability, "your high ability to use words, or verbal symbols, and to do verbal reasoning in scholastic work." Super warns of this score-centeredness: "The result is test-centered and the real significance and value of testing is lost" (175, p. 575). The counselor must state clearly the nature of the trait being measured. This avoids the emotional associations that have grown around certain tests and test scores, for example, the Stanford Aptitude Test, which many students erroneously interpret as an IQ test.

There is danger in overpersonalizing traits and scores. The counselor would frequently find it advantageous to generalize the prediction, as in the following illustrations: "People with scores like that seem to find college work rather easy." "A person who scores like that would find work in engineering rather difficult."

7. *Prediction.* If data are available, the client should be given an interpretation in terms of statistical prediction. Examples of this type of

interpretive statement are: "Three out of four students with scores like this succeed in law" and "A person with scores like this has a sixty-per-cent chance of succeeding in engineering." This type of prediction assumes that research has been done on local populations. The University of Minnesota personnel staff, for example, has worked out prediction tables for most of their major divisions (208). The Bixlers emphasize that the advantage of this type of interpretation is that no counselor opinion enters. It is entirely empirical. "When the client begins to apply these predictions to his own plan, deciding what they mean to him, and what he wishes to do as a result of them, the more crucial phases of counseling have begun. The client either integrates the test predictions into his thinking and thus makes use of them or he distorts and rejects them. The more he feels free to discuss his reactions with the counselor, the more likely it is that he will come to a logical acceptance of their significance" (18, p. 151). The client attaches personal significance to the empirical predictions given him by the counselor in terms of the local group in which he will compete.

8. *Exact Scores.* Since every test score has an "error," it is misleading to give the client an exact score. It is much more appropriate to indicate a range. This principle is emphasized by Bingham: "When interpreting a person's performance, obtained scores should not be thought of as a point on the scale, but rather as a band or zone about that point" (15, p. 253).

9. *Clarity.* The test results must be presented in a clear, nontechnical manner. The best educational principles must be used to take complex testing concepts out of the abstract and into the concrete experience of the client. Dewey maintains that "the acquisition of definiteness and of consistency of meaning is derived primarily from practical activities" (49, p. 142). By "practical activities," Dewey means events within the client's experience. Dewey emphasizes further the danger of vagueness. "Because of vagueness of meaning we misunderstand other people, things, and ourselves; because of ambiguity we distort and pervert. . . . Vagueness disguises the unconscious mixing together of different meanings, and facilitates the substitution of one meaning for another, and covers up the failure to have any precise meaning at all" (49, pp. 159-160).

10. *Isolated Scores.* Scores should not be interpreted in isolation. Too much emphasis is placed upon the significance of just one interest test

interpreted out of context with other trait measures. Test data must be woven in with other personal data about the client to confirm or cast doubt upon the validity of the test results. It is safer to use a check test, consisting of an alternate form, if an aptitude being appraised is to be used for prediction purposes.

11. Time for Client Evaluation. After presentation of the test results, the client is free to react to them. This requires a pause after the presentation to allow for complete perception of the facts. Covner stresses the point that rejection of counselor interpretation seems to be due frequently to failure in giving the client enough time to study the facts and react to them. The counselor does not attempt to cajole, persuade, or frighten the client into a personalized interpretation.

12. Facilitation of Self-evaluation. After the client has had time to perceive the facts, his disappointments, elations, and other feelings are reflected and accepted within the permissive and accepting atmosphere developed earlier. This step is important for preventing distortion of the test results. In discussing test interpretation, Stuit states that "many counselors learned to their sorrow that it is not what the counselor says that counts; it is what the student hears or thinks he hears" (174, p. 76). The client's motivation interferes with acceptance of the findings. Recent research by Kelley indicates the potent effect of motives upon the distortion of perceptions (95). The Bixlers assert that "the grading of examinations at the end of the quarter verifies the ineffectiveness of books and lectures in giving information to students. Vocational test interpretation is much more personalized and there is greater opportunity and reason for the student to distort or disregard information given to him" (18, p. 147).

Rogers and Wallen emphasize the importance of motives when they comment that "no matter how perfectly standardized a test may be, the test results will be of no more use than the client can allow them to be. Assimilating and making use of test information is a problem of feelings and attitudes . . . " (152, p. 101).

Bartlett offers evidence from his memory experiments to indicate the distorting effect of time and experience on memory. He asserts that memory is productive as well as reproductive (12). Wallen conducted an experiment upon memory of personality ratings, from which he concluded that forgetting is selective and can be explained in terms of reorganization of the trace (a Gestalt concept) "dependent upon

stresses arising from the ego field" (195, p. 39). Wallen found that bogus personality ratings presented as genuine were recalled in a way to make them more compatible with the subjects' own opinions of themselves. His experiment was so controlled that the result was not attributed to different degrees of mastery. The evidence offered in this section is sufficient warning to the counselor to anticipate and prevent, by techniques presented here, the distortion of test information.

Investigators working within the framework of Gestalt theory have demonstrated how distortion of perception operates systematically and progressively in the direction of the "good Gestalt" (101). Wulf found that successive reproductions of figures tend to move in the direction of a symmetrical and conventional figure (217). One might infer, until confirmation by further evidence, that clients' perceptions of test scores also move, in time, in the direction of the "good Gestalt"—a socially acceptable or desired score. In light of this possibility of distortion it would seem desirable to give the client personal copies of test results in a form he can understand easily, so he can make frequent references to them in his future planning.

13. Low Scores. When test results might appear to be traumatic to a student because they are very low, or when he is not in an emotional condition to accept them, the counselor refrains from a direct interpretation. The counselor faces a difficult dilemma; he has a responsibility to the student to present his status objectively and at the same time to avoid the trauma or distortion attendant upon test scores which cannot be accepted. The counselor's skill comes to its greatest test here. Rogers and Wallen suggest the rule: "Information derived from testing can best be given when it fits in with something the client has just said" (152, p. 100). The counselor might inject the test results when the client indicates his apprehension about the results. They would then be a type of confirmation; if the counselor reflects them properly and does not appear disturbed over the results, the client may be aided in self-acceptance.

The counselor would do well to have some test results available which indicate higher aptitude for some other activity. After appropriate reflection, a supportive response sometimes helps "cushion" the disappointment.

The counselor might mention the fallibility of tests as predictors and the influence of other factors and abilities for success in life. On the

other hand, he cannot minimize the importance of test results such as scholastic aptitude for planning in law or medicine where the ability in question is vital for success. This is especially true where school grades, achievement, and other aptitude measures confirm the test results. The counselor must rely primarily on his counseling skill, however, since positive substitution or reassurance cannot compensate the client for the stripping of his defenses by something so "objective" as a test.

The counselor cannot overlook the possibility that low test scores may be attributed to inaccuracies due to motivation, misunderstanding of directions, or deception.

The following are practical materials and techniques which implement foregoing principles.

The counselor is well aware of the "crystal-ball" attitude of students toward tests. It appears that much of this attitude results from traditional methods of test interpretation. These methods include the interpretation of tests to the client *directly* from the Psychometric Report. This requires that the counselor explain the purpose of the test, the use of the norm groups, and the meanings of percentiles, standard scores, and raw scores. There is also the danger that clients regard subtest scores as having the same weight as total test scores. The responsibility for the brunt of the talking must be borne by the counselor. Moreover, the preponderance of test names, scores, and scales on the Psychometric Report and similar profile sheets overwhelm the student. Profiles give the impression, furthermore, that scores are relative to one another. The fact that norm groups are not comparable is not made evident on the line type of profile. One hears a client say, "The counselor hinted that I should go into this occupation because it was the longest line."

With the above criticisms in mind, the Test Interpretation form indicated in Figure 21 was developed.

This form is a specially developed interpretative device which allows the maximum adherence to the principles presented previously in this chapter.

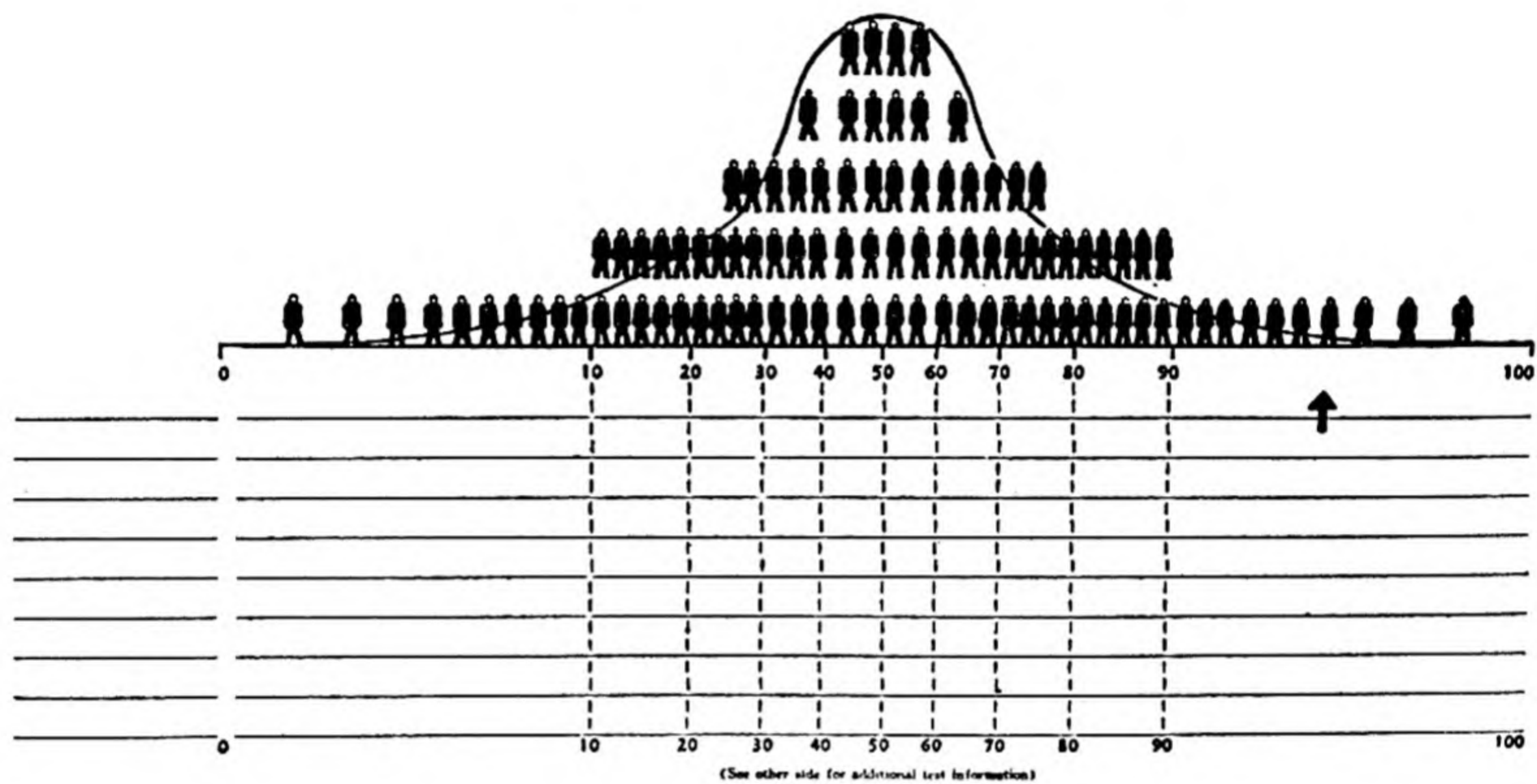
The procedure to be followed with the Test Interpretation form is quite flexible. The form is not introduced until the client requests test interpretation. The counselor may insert the name of the test, the client's name, and the date on the Test Interpretation forms prior to

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TEST INTERPRETATION

Name Welsh, Jim Date 6/15/49
Test Ohio State Psychological

The diagram below compares your Scholastic Attitude
with 100 Stanford Applicants who have taken
this test. Your scores fall approximately at the point indicated by the red arrows below:



STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER

TEST INTERPRETATION

Name Welsh, Jim Date 6/15/49
Test Meier Art Judgment

The diagram below compares your Art judging ability
with 100 College Art Students who have taken
this test. Your scores fall approximately at the point indicated by the red arrows below:

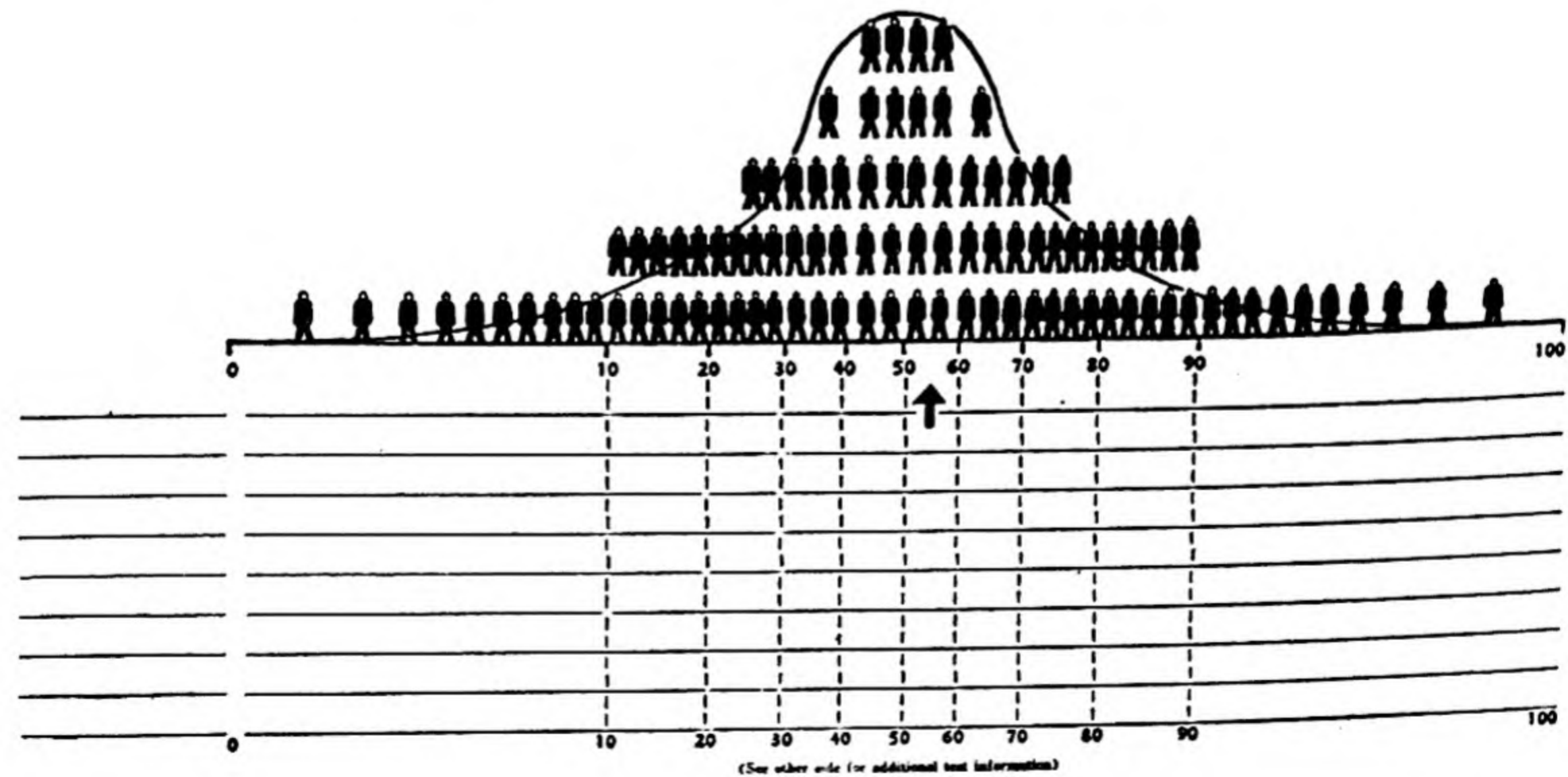


FIG. 21.

the client's arrival. A separate form should be used for each test to facilitate exposition and understanding.

After reference to the test phases of the precounseling orientation, the counselor briefly structures the test-interpretation procedure, citing the values and limitations of tests. The client's attention is then drawn to the test under consideration. After being assured that the client remembers the test, the counselor proceeds to read, "The diagram below compares your _____ with 100 _____ who have taken this test." While the client observes and/or suggests the trait measured, the counselor fills the blank with that trait, *e.g.*, "scholastic aptitude." In the second blank the counselor writes "high-school seniors," the norm group. The reader will note that this does not necessitate an extensive explanation of the norm concept.

When the client understands the norm group, the counselor reads further, "Your score falls approximately at the point indicated by the red arrow below." The counselor then draws a small red arrow, as in Figure 21, to indicate the score-point area. Note that the phrase on the form reads, "Approximately at the point" This informs the client that the arrow does not indicate a specific score but a range of possible scores, depending upon the reliability of the test. It avoids the exact-score fallacy described in principle 8.

The client can follow this procedure easily and has enough time to perceive the elements of test interpretation in terms of his own experience. The counselor goes on from the red arrow to state: "These figures represent any hundred high-school seniors arranged according to the normal curve of distribution. You can see approximately where you stand relative to any hundred other seniors on this ability." If the client asks, for example, "What does this mean for law?," the counselor states (if known) the statistical prediction in generalized terms. If not known, the counselor would make a general statement somewhat as follows: "Persons with scores this high probably would do well in law school—other things being equal." The counselor may cite the low relationship between this scholastic-aptitude measure and scholastic achievement, illustrating to the client the importance of considering other predictive factors.

Another principle of interpretation is followed. If the client obtains a score in the vicinity of the twenty-fifth percentile, he notes that there are many others below him. This tends to give him a realistic picture

of his status and yet reduces the possible traumatic effect of the below-average score. It is noted that the percentiles are spaced on a standard-score scale, thus combining the advantages of standard scores with easily interpreted percentile scores. The diagram allows tests reported in standard scores to be interpreted on this form, also. This diagram-

TEST INFORMATION

The tests which you took have no magical qualities. Tests will not answer your questions completely. However, they may give you better knowledge of your interests, special abilities, and personality traits. Used cautiously, they can help you make more sound and satisfying educational and vocational plans. The following information will help you remember what your tests attempted to measure. See your counselor for specific information about these tests.

Interest Tests:

Interest tests sample your *preferences* for occupations, situations, and activities. Your preferences are compared to those of people in several occupational categories. Interest tests *do not* measure ability, nor do they predict success by themselves. Your interests, however, should be considered along with aptitudes and personality factors when making educational-vocational plans.

Scholastic Aptitude Tests:

These tests predict your ability to do school work. Most scholastic aptitude tests attempt to measure your vocabulary, numerical reasoning, and abstract reasoning. A high score does not guarantee scholastic success necessarily. Other factors are important also—drive, study habits, special aptitudes, and personality characteristics.

Special Aptitude Tests:

Special aptitude tests attempt to predict your potential capacity to learn or perform in specific activities, such as clerical or mechanical work.

Achievement Tests:

These tests are useful for assessing your present knowledge and skills. Achievement tests often predict how well you will perform in related school subjects or similar skills in the future.

Personality Inventories:

You have answered questions about yourself in these tests. Your responses were compared to a group at your school level. Personality is difficult to measure. Be careful not to jump to hasty conclusions about your scores. Remember that:

1. Personality tests are the least dependable tests used in counseling. Personality traits change and your responses to the test may be different at a later date.
2. They should be interpreted cautiously by a qualified counselor.
3. Your scores are merely rough indications of patterns revealed on this test. They may indicate areas which you would like to discuss further with your counselor.

FIG. 22.

matic method, however, avoids the usual necessity for explaining and illustrating percentiles and standard scores.

Figure 21 may be used with single- or multiple-score tests. The multiple scores are placed on the form one at a time and are partially interpreted while attention is focused on the one item.

The reverse side of the Test Interpretation form contains a description of the principal test categories and elementary interpretation principles. These categories, illustrated in Figure 22, are provided for the client's future referral.

As a result of the concentrated discussion concerning the detailed techniques of test interpretation, the writers do not wish to minimize the importance of attendant counseling techniques. The techniques of counseling, as described in Chapter 5, must be employed constantly while using these supporting devices. The following is an illustration of the danger of test interpretation without supporting counseling. A freshman came to the counseling center with a beautifully prepared psychometric survey and profile with twenty-five pages of well-written interpretation. This work had been done privately by a counselor employed by a well-known West Coast college. The client stated he saw the counselor very little except for the testing. He was dissatisfied and rejected the whole thing, stating, "That just isn't me. I don't think those results represent what I want to do or can do at all. What's more, my father didn't think so, either. He was mad about the whole thing."

The Bixlers comment on this problem also: "The client either integrates the test predictions into his thinking and thus makes use of them or he distorts and rejects them. The more he feels free to discuss his reactions with the counselor, the more likely it is that he will come to a logical acceptance of their significance" (18, p. 151).

Rogers and Wallen emphasize the transition from the informational to the attitudinal in the following: "Assimilating and making use of test information is a problem of feelings and attitudes. . . . Letting him proceed at his own pace, stating his objections or approval, examining why he objects or approves, expressing his feelings freely, will prove more valuable in the long run" (152, p. 101).

These statements of experienced counselors and disappointed clients stress the crucial nature of this postinterpretive counseling period. Some of the consequences of bungling this phase of the process are likely to result in the client's leaving dissatisfied, critical, and unmotivated to use his new information, or with his problem unsolved. An experienced counselor made the following comment which seems to corroborate the previous statement.

He indicated that he felt confident in areas where he shouldn't and didn't where he should; that sometimes he thought he was too sure of himself. A point which he exemplifies is that it is quite possible for a student to interpret test results to himself, according to a summary profile, and jump to conclusions regarding what he *thought* the test meant. This lad has read

much into *one* part of the Strong profile. He could serve as a good example of the need for *careful*, adequate interpretation of test data.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

Occupational information has several functions in counseling. Christensen lists four—instructional, instrumental, distributional, and therapeutic (33). The *instructional* function, which is of most concern in this study, consists of factual enlightenment concerning occupations. The *instrumental* function is one of motivating the client toward self-directed activity in the solution of his educational-vocational problems. The *distributional* function comprises the provision of specific job information, primarily for placement purposes. The *therapeutic* function deals with information in connection with problems of unrealistic aspirations and confirmation of realistic aspirations.

Probably one of the weakest links in the counseling process is the use of information in the interview. The traditional procedure, after interpretation of tests, is to suggest occupations or to show where the tests confirm the client's present ideas about an occupation. A questionnaire study by Corcoran of Veterans Administration clients indicated some rejections of this type of counseling (35). This rejection, apparent in the comments, may be due to the premature overpersonalized nature of information presented and the lack of conviction on the client's part that it was the best conclusion from the data or from his own feelings about the matter. A student criticizing the traditional method states, "In the last interview when professions are narrowed down—instead of finally choosing one out of the three or four, there should be a little research or reading on each one."

There is a danger in giving specific information too early or when not solicited by the client. On the other hand, clients appreciate leading statements which bring up possibilities they may have overlooked. Another student who was counseled in a permissive manner commented, "I liked the interpretation of the tests and suggestion of the counselor, 'if you look into this,' etc. That's something the average person can't do. He needs training for this and can't do the thing otherwise."

Strang, in her survey of writings on the use of information in counseling, finds information advocates all along the directive-nondirective

continuum (172). From Strang's survey, and from the experience of the authors, the following principles seem to enhance the possibility of client satisfaction with the occupational-information technique.

Principles of Using Occupational Information

1. *Objectivity.* In general, information given to the client should be given without personal reference. It seems best to let the client apply it to himself as the data and his feelings support the suggestions.

2. *Occupational Facts.* It seems wise, when presenting occupational facts, to give them directly from printed material rather than from memory (17). This prevents erroneous or outdated information from being given and helps to prevent the shift of responsibility from client to counselor. If the counselor gives too much direct information, he is likely to be regarded as the expert, upon whom responsibility for the solution of the problem and the complete direction of the interview may be shifted. Strang corroborates this view by regarding the counselor as a "sounding board" or "resource" (172).

3. *Suggesting Occupations.* When the synthesized patterns seem to indicate occupations to the counselor but not to the client, the counselor suggests them as possibilities to consider. This is done in a manner to allow the client to accept or reject them freely.

4. *Timing.* Readiness for occupational data may be detected by the sensitive counselor from the degree of self-understanding and self-acceptance displayed during the appraisal phases. In general, occupational information and suggestions are held in abeyance until (1) the individual appraisal phases are completed, (2) the client feels a need for such information, or (3) the counselor feels that occupational information would serve an instrumental or therapeutic function.

5. *Synthesis.* The counselor has a responsibility to help the client relate occupational facts to the predetermined personal data from tests and the personal history. This is an interactive process between counselor and client.

6. *Verification.* The counselor helps the client to verify and clarify the occupational information gained in his library research. Hoppock emphasizes counselor responsibility on this point: "Even the nondirective counselor is not relieved of the responsibility of helping his client to check his insight against the cold hard realities of employment opportunity. Effective vocational guidance requires both insight and

foresight, as plenty of disillusioned clients can now testify by hindsight" (84, p. 417).

This principle implies considerable knowledge of occupations on the part of the counselor. The emphasis upon client responsibility for informational research and the technique of referral to the occupational specialist do not absolve the counselor of responsibility to be well informed vocationally. Strang indicates that an extensive informational background makes counseling techniques more effective. "The more knowledge the counselor has of what the workers in skilled trades do . . . the more likely he is to reflect realistic and useful parts of the client's thinking and feeling even though he does not use this information directly" (172, p. 527).

A recent study by Speer and Jasker punctuates the importance of the verification principle. Studying the influence of information on occupational goals of college men, they found: "Slightly more than half (59.0%) of those who expressed interest in professional goals possessed reasonably adequate information concerning job requirements and sources of education or training, but they were unrealistic or poorly informed concerning employment opportunities and average income possibilities" (166, p. 16).

7. *General Education.* While emphasizing analysis and synthesis of vocational information, there is a tendency to deemphasize the general educational values of certain courses of study. Cowley warns of the tendency in counseling to view college education from a strictly utilitarian viewpoint (39). Moyer criticizes counselors for this negligence in stressing "liberal-arts" education (121). He cites quotations from newspapermen, *e.g.*, of the necessity for broad general education for professional-level occupations.

These principles are useful in helping the client decide upon tentative life goals.

SYNTHESIS

The most important part of the synthesis interview is the synthesizing phase. This phase tends to crystallize the personal, test, and other information into positive plans. It should be emphasized that the synthesis phase corresponds to the "positive-growth-and-action" step of the client-centered counseling sequence.

In describing the process of client-centered counseling in the initial interview, two phases were mentioned: (1) the emotional release and (2) development of insights. The third and final phase of counseling normally is referred to as (3) positive growth and action. This phase is defined as the period in which the client, out of his new understandings, plans his future and new ways of meeting experiences so that in the future he will be capable of "self-actualization."

The Life-planning Brochure

In self-adjustive counseling, the writers have found that the positive-planning phase is often facilitated by the preparation of a Life-planning Brochure (Figure 23), which will aid the student in crystalizing his plans and will assist him in future adjustments.

Figures 23 to 28 illustrate the various components of the Life-planning Brochure. The case of Jim Welsh is an illustration of how each form is completed.

Into the brochure the counselor and client together place the personal, test, and occupational information previously mentioned. This information gives the client a layman's interpretation of tests and materials which he can use in the reevaluation of his plans with parents and friends.

Information about himself is summarized on a Student Summary Sheet (Figure 25) by the counselor and the client. Additional copies of these sheets are also placed in the brochure, so that the client can add additional pertinent notes as he further formulates his plans.

Information about occupations is included in the Career Study Outline form (Figure 26) which the client has completed in the vocational library during the exploratory period.

Included in the brochure, on the last page, is an Official Test Summary (Figure 28). This form, developed for administrative purposes, is included so that the test results can be recorded accurately and can be used by other professional people in the future. Counselors receive frequent requests for abstracts of test results. This summary offers a convenient and professional instrument for meeting this need.

This practice of official test summaries has a precedent at the University of Minnesota, where Paterson has used "summary letters" following the final interview (128). These summary letters do not include tabulated scores but interpretations in behavioral and actuarial

The Life Plans

of

Jim Welsh

Counseling and Testing Center
Stanford University

PLANNING YOUR FUTURE

The purpose of this brochure is to assist you in formulating your life plans. You will notice that included in it are interpretations of the tests which you took and the occupational information which you collected. These materials may represent only the beginning of your planning. You may wish to add the results of future testing and occupational research.

This brochure has another possible use. Presenting it to your academic advisers, placement counselors, and to prospective employers will give them a graphic and cumulative picture of your aptitudes, interests, achievements, and plans.

We would suggest that you insert any material or information which has significance to you, so that by the end of your college training you will have a realistic appraisal of your potentialities.

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Student Summary Sheet

You may use this sheet for additional notes as you formulate your own life plans.

Dating the comments may help to indicate the trend of your thinking.

STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER

Career Study Outline

Occupation Physician

This is a guide to assist you in your study of possible vocational goals. We suggest that you glance through this outline before reading the pamphlets in the vocational library. It will help you to know what to look for in an occupation. From your reading jot down essential information which you will want to consider in your planning. Ask the counselor for information you cannot find and for additional references in the school library. Since occupational information changes frequently, it would be advisable to record the date and the source of the material.

Information	Date and Source
1. Opportunities: Current opportunities <u>Excellent 50,000 more doctors need</u> Probable opportunities when I graduate <u>Shortage of doctors expected for many years</u>	<u>Rec. Res. Assoc med. School Regis. 1950</u> " "
2. Probable Salary: Starting <u>\$2,500 No. as resident</u> After 5 years <u>\$6,000</u> Probable <u>\$</u> Maximum <u>15,000</u> Special benefits such as insurance and retirement <u>None, work for oneself</u> Security (<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Excellent, <input type="checkbox"/> Good, <input type="checkbox"/> Fair, <input type="checkbox"/> Poor)	<u>1949, Health Dept.</u>
3. Hours: Work week <u>long, varies</u> Regular or irregular <u>Irregular as general practitioner</u>	<u>Interview with family physician Jan, 1950</u>
4. Entry and Related Jobs: <u>Resident physician in a hospital about three years</u>	
5. Qualifications and Restrictions: Sex, marital, racial, etc. <u>None</u> Organization memberships <u>A. M. A.</u> Licenses required <u>medical license</u> Examinations required <u>State</u> Special personal qualities required <u>High scholastic aptitude, high grades, good vision</u>	" " " "
6. Training: Where obtained <u>X University</u> <u>X College Catalog, 1950</u> Length <u>Seven years</u> Cost <u>approx. \$12,000</u> Entrance requirements <u>Rigid, one out of three applicants accepted</u> Scholarships available <u>three</u> Special information <u>90 units pre-med. work</u>	" " " "
7. Advantages and disadvantages of this occupation: 1. <u>Good salary</u> 2. <u>Interesting work</u> 3. <u>High social status</u> 4. <u>Service opportunities</u> 1. <u>Long expensive training</u> 2. <u>Long irregular hours</u> 3. <u>Entrance uncertainty</u>	

(Use other side for additional notes)

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FIG. 26.

STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER

Career Study Outline

Occupation Cartoonist

This is a guide to assist you in your study of possible vocational goals. We suggest that you glance through this outline before reading the pamphlets in the vocational library. It will help you to know what to look for in an occupation. From your reading jot down essential information which you will want to consider in your planning. Ask the counselor for information you cannot find and for additional references in the school library. Since occupational information changes frequently, it would be advisable to record the date and the source of the material.

Information	Date and Source
1. Opportunities: Current opportunities <u>Fair, about 400 openings a year</u> Probable opportunities when I graduate <u>uncertain</u>	1949, <u>Cartooning as a Career</u>
2. Probable Salary: Starting <u>50 per week</u> After 5 years <u>100 per week</u> Probable <u>up to \$10,000</u> Special benefits such as insurance and retirement <u>varies with company worked for</u> Maximum <u>some beyond</u> Security (..... Excellent, Good, <u>X</u> Fair, Poor)	..
3. Hours: Work week <u>40 hours, average</u> Regular or irregular <u>regular</u>	..
4. Entry and Related Jobs: <u>layout man, Commercial artist</u>	..
5. Qualifications and Restrictions: Sex, marital, racial, etc. <u>None</u> Organization memberships <u>Unknown</u> Licenses required <u>None</u> Examinations required <u>None</u> Special personal qualities required <u>Artistic abilities, imagination, humor</u>	..
6. Training: Where obtained <u>N. Y. School of Cartooning</u> Length <u>1 year</u> Cost <u>total for 1 year, approx \$2000</u> Entrance requirements <u>H. S. Graduate</u> Scholarships available <u>Unknown</u> Special information	<u>Catalog, 1949</u>
7. Advantages and disadvantages of this occupation: 1. <u>Interesting and tied in with art</u> 2. <u>Regular hours</u> 3. <u>creative outlet</u> 4. <u>High salary if successful</u> (Use other side for additional notes)	1. <u>Entry pay low</u> 2. <u>few entry jobs and placement facilities</u> 3. <u>School long way from home</u>

(FIG. 26 continued.)

STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER

Career Study Outline

Occupation Advertising man

This is a guide to assist you in your study of possible vocational goals. We suggest that you glance through this outline before reading the pamphlets in the vocational library. It will help you to know what to look for in an occupation. From your reading jot down essential information which you will want to consider in your planning. Ask the counselor for information you cannot find and for additional references in the school library. Since occupational information changes frequently, it would be advisable to record the date and the source of the material.

Information	Date and Source
1. Opportunities:	1949. Jobs in advertising (talk Adv. Fed. of Amer.)
Current opportunities	Good, many entry jobs
Probable opportunities when I graduate	Likely to increase
2. Probable Salary:	
Starting	about \$50 per wk.
After 5 years	Uncertain
Probable Maximum	No limit, high
Special benefits such as insurance and retirement	varies
Security (..... Excellent, X..... Good, Fair, Poor)	
3. Hours:	1949
Work week	40-60 hours - much night work at times
Regular or irregular	quite regular
4. Entry and Related Jobs:	careers in advertising (Boston Univ.)
	Sales, Mer. display, layout man
5. Qualifications and Restrictions:	jobs in advertising
Sex, marital, racial, etc.	None
*Organization memberships	American Assoc. of Advertising Agencies
Licenses required	None
Examinations required	Exams by above organization for certification
Special personal qualities required	Experience in business, social skill
6. Training:	
Where obtained	On the job
Length	2-3 years
Cost	None
Entrance requirements	None special
Scholarships available	None
Special information	Liberal arts and business is best preparation
	1949
	Careers in Advertising (Boston University)
7. Advantages and disadvantages of this occupation:	
1. No routine, always new	1. Competitive entry levels
2. Creative	2. Low starting salary
3. Growing field	3. No "professional standing" in a community
4. Increasing professionalization	
* Send for free bulletins	(Use other side for additional notes)

(FIG. 26 continued.)

terms. Paterson used the letters to prevent the "psychological laws of disuse and memory distortion" from operating on the test results (128, p. 94). It is felt that the Official Test Summary, in combination with

STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER

Official Test Summary

James E. Welsh
Name

June 26, 1949
Date

This is a summary of results of tests administered to the above student. These results should be interpreted cautiously and only by qualified professional personnel.

Name and Form of Test	Norm Group	Raw Score	Percentile Rank
Ohio State Psychological Exam, Form 21	Stanford applicants	55	95
Meier Art Judgment	College Art Students	102	52

L. M. Brummer
Counselor

FIG. 27.

the other elements of the brochure, accomplishes the same results with less clerical work.

If appropriate to the client's situation, a final phase of counseling is centered about the Formulating Educational-Vocational Plans Summary (Figure 28). This form is included also in the Life-planning Bro-

Date 6/18/49

STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER

Formulating Educational-Vocational Plans Summary

We hope that the group orientation, the conferences with your counselor, the tests, and the occupational information have given you a clearer picture of possible educational and vocational goals. We would suggest that you use this sheet to list some of these possibilities for future reference.

I. Possible Educational Major: Pre-Medicine

Vocations related to the above major:

Physician
Medical Technologist
Male nurse

II. Possible Educational Major: Business Administration

Vocations related to the above major:

Advertising
Office Manager
Salesman
Publishing

III. Possible Educational Major: Commercial Art

Vocations related to the above major:

Advertising Layout man
Cartoonist

Page 9

FIG. 28.

chure. The counselor and client list those possible educational majors and occupations that the client feels are possible goals. It should be emphasized that there is no effort to force the student to stop with the selection of one, two, or even three possible goals in preferential order. More often than not, five or six possible goals will be selected. Emphasis, instead, is placed on the fact that this is *only the beginning* of

Confidential ☐ ☐
Yes No

STANFORD COUNSELING AND TESTING CENTER

Counseling Summary

Client: Welsh, Jim Date 6/20/49
Last Name First Name Middle Init.

Statement of the Problem: Mr. Welsh was referred by the Chief Counselor for Men. He stated his problem as a non-understandable change of interest since coming to Stanford. This change, he states, has affected his grades and his general stability. He wanted help in choosing among several alternatives facing him.

Summary: Mr. Welsh came to Stanford to be a physician. This is the occupation stressed by his mother. He stated that his mother wants him to go into a prestige profession and not art.

Present Interests: Jim claims he has lost all interest in becoming a physician. This has changed to a strong desire to be a cartoonist. This interest is confirmed by several work experiences in free-lance art and in advertising. He has drawn numerous cartoons for the "Chappie". He states that he has a file of "several hundred" cartoon ideas awaiting development.

Test Results: Scholastic aptitude was very high. Art judgment was in the average range for commercial art students. The alternatives as Jim saw them were as follows: (1) Go to commercial art school in New York (where a friend has a magazine job open for him also), (2) Apprenticeship in advertising (available now), (3) Staying at Stanford (where he can be editor of "Chappie" next year). These alternatives were listed with the possible advantages, disadvantages and consequences of each choice. He stated that regardless of which alternative is chosen, he will eventually earn a college degree. He feels this will satisfy his family also. His ultimate vocational goal is cartoonist. He is preparing for an advertising managership if this plan fails to materialize. The advertising will also utilize his writing interests and experience. This will also utilize his high verbal ability. An important factor in the choice of an alternative above, and which is likely to be a factor in his average grades, is his desire to get married. His girl is at Fresno State majoring in art.

Conclusions: (including client's plan of action) Mr. Welsh decided to take the advertising apprenticeship to give him a marketable skill. This choice will give him time to decide about what to do next fall. This will enable him to get married sooner. When he has some experience in business advertising and cartooning, he plans to complete his undergraduate work in business administration. Mr. Welsh stated that he felt much relieved and that the facts and plans seemed more clear to him now.

Counselor Lawrence Brammer

Lawrence Brammer

FORM 10

FIG. 29.

the student's planning. From this point on, the student continues to carry the ball by himself; he now accepts independence. The brochure, in other words, is simply a device to assist the student in future self-actualization. This preparation of the brochure represents the culmination of the positive-planning-and-action phase of the counseling process.

Upon completion of counseling, a summary is prepared by the counselor. Figure 29 is a sample of such a summary form. This form emphasizes the client's problems, the referral source, a summary of events, and data from the counseling process, choices made by the client and the client's plan of action rather than the counselor's diagnosis.

Since it is difficult to formulate specific counseling techniques for the synthesis or positive-planning phase, a verbatim synthesis interview is presented. This case illustrates an approach to the problem of synthesis. It is noted that the techniques employed are the same counseling techniques described in Chapter 6 on the initial interview.

Just how the transition is made from synthesis, to positive planning, to action will vary with the individual case.

EXAMPLE—A SYNTHESIS INTERVIEW

THE CASE OF JIM WELSH

Second (Synthesis) Interview

1. Test Interpretation

C: Hello, Jim.

S: Hi, Dr.———, how are you doin' today?

C: Just fine.

S: Boy, you know that testing . . . it was kind of fun. How about these tests? Do you think they'll give us any help on this problem?

C: Yes, they should give us some help. Let's see, you took two of them, didn't you, and we looked up two others from a previous testing engagement. Which would you like to discuss first? Do you have any preference?

S: Well, how did I do in that art test? In fact, I don't know if that was such a good test. I didn't like it too well. These pictures were kind of old-fashioned in my thinking.

C: Well, they represent largely the classical type of art—the fine arts rather than modern design—and modern abstract art or cubism or other forms of twentieth-century art. Again, it is a matter of measuring how your preferences or judgments compare with art students', and there is no art ability necessarily implied. Judgment is only one factor in art. See, you get . . .

S: I guess the more . . . more of the classical painters would do well in that,

better than I would, being interested in commercial type of art. Is that right?

C: That's right, although there were quite a few commercial-art students in this group. Still, you are right; it is heavily weighted with the type of judgment required in the fine arts.

S: Well, how did I do, then?

C: You see on this form, your judgment is compared with [that of] any hundred students in art classes; and, if we were to compare you with these students, your score would fall approximately here where I am drawing this red arrow. So, you can see it is within about this range.

S: What are all these men here for? Are they supposed to represent one hundred art students?

C: That's right. This distribution represents any one hundred art students taken at random from these classes. The reason we present these hundred here—it shows you just about where you stand, in the approximate area. You see, there are quite a few in this middle section representing the middle range.

S: Uh-huh. In other words, a score of . . . my score is about . . . a little better than fifty, huh?

C: That's right.

S: That's about average?

C: That's about average for this group—this group of students. If we took cartoonists or commercial-art students only, it is difficult to tell. I suspect, as you indicated before, that they would fall lower on this scale. But, compared to art students in general, your score falls about here.

S: According to this test, I am not outstanding in art. Is that right?

C: You don't do as well as you expected, perhaps?

S: Well, I believe that doesn't show very much, as far as I'm concerned. I don't know.

C: Kind of disappointed in this one, then?

S: Yeah, that's right. As you say, I suppose it doesn't really measure the kind of art I'm interested in; but, well, I guess it's nice to know, anyhow. Well, what did I do with the rest of the tests?

C: Well, you took the study-habits inventory which is, we mentioned last time, a sample of some of these various problems that students face. What did you think of it?

S: Yeah. I liked that little test. It sure brought out some points there in my study habits which I had never thought of before. How did I do in that one?

C: Well, you see these red circled items on here?

S: Uh-huh.

C: Those are areas which need some thinking.

S: Uh-huh.

C: Compared to other students who have taken this test, these are the areas where you are weak and you assume, then, these others which are not circled are adequate or strong areas. You notice this one on concentration—

S: Yeah, yeah, I have difficulty in concentration. I suppose . . . well, I've got this girl, you know, and once in a while I start looking at her picture on the desk there and kind of lose track of what I'm thinking about. Unless there are several of these circled things, what are we . . . do you have any suggestions to help me on those, then, or what?

C: Well, there are several things one can do. You can go over them systematically and make a plan for improving yourself in each of these areas. There is an excellent little pamphlet which is an extension of this study-habits inventory and goes over these items section by section. It is called "Studying Effectively." It is sold over here in the bookstore, and as you indicated just now, you are really interested in this problem, Jim, and I'm sure you will find that little pamphlet a good starter, anyway.

S: How much does it cost?

C: It's about a quarter.

S: Yeah, I had probably ought to get one of those, then, huh? How will I know which ones . . . can I take this list?

C: Yes, you may take this inventory with you, for reference and if you want some further ideas, I have a list of books and pamphlets here which you can delve into further.

S: O.K. Swell. How about this test which I took when I came to Stanford? I think I did pretty well in that one.

C: You mean this Ohio State Psychological Examination?

S: I guess that was the one, yeah.

C: That is called the Stanford Aptitude, because we use it here at Stanford, and we were comparing you to any hundred Stanford applicants. In other words, all those students who applied to get into Stanford took this test.

S: Uh-huh. In other words, I'm not being compared to art students this time, huh?

C: That's right. And this ability, you remember, is this verbal word ability we spoke of last time, measured quite largely by vocabulary, if you remember. And you can see in this distribution of any hundred Stanford applicants, you are up here at the top—considerably above aver-

age. Here above ninety, and it indicates you are in the superior range for this particular ability.

S: That means I could probably be a pretty good doctor.

C: It means that you could do well in certain subjects in medical school, assuming that other things were equal.

S: Gee, it kind of looks like the tests show I could be a doctor but not an artist. Gee, I believe maybe I'm more confused now than I was before.

C: It didn't turn out the way you expected, eh?

S: Well, that study-habits thing is . . . I ought to be able to get some things out of that, and I suppose it is nice to know that you can do schoolwork pretty good according to that kind of test. I suppose it is that art test that I'm kind of disappointed in, but I guess it doesn't measure everything in art, does it?

C: It is difficult to measure art ability. The best measure you can get is your past experience in it, your own interests, what other people have said about your cartoons and designs. That's one of the best indicators of art aptitude.

S: Yeah. I'm glad to hear that. I suppose the guys who'll be cartoonists, the best he can make is whether he can make good cartoons or not and not whether or not he can judge pictures, huh?

C: That's right. That's an area we just can't test very well. We have to depend on other things—things you mentioned on this other form, this background form you filled out when you came, and on the information you gathered in the library. Did you find anything in the library that was helpful to you?

2. Occupational-information Discussion

S: Oh, yeah, yeah. I did spend some time in there. I got this article on cartooning you mentioned, which is pretty interesting. In fact, I made three of these outlines . . . what do you call them . . . career outlines or whatever?

C: Career Study Outlines.

S: Yeah. I brought them with me here. On this outline for cartoonist, I put down some of the things which were in this article you mentioned to me. Would you like to see it?

C: Career Study Outlines.

S: O.K. I'll see if I can find it here. According to this outline, I ought to make pretty good money at cartooning if I ever get into a good agency or something like that. Salaries there run up to five or six thousand dollars. Gee, that sounds good to me.

C: What was the starting salary? Did you notice that?

S: Well, not so high when you are an apprentice. You can start out as an apprentice in some agency and so forth, and you won't do too well, but it depends a lot on your talent. And, as I mentioned before, I have had a lot of experience working here on the *Chappie*. I've got several art and cartoons here, and I think I could get out of that category pretty fast.

C: This information was quite attractive to you, then?

3. *Synthesis*

S: According to that background form, I'd be a pretty good artist, don't you think so?

C: It looks more like that all the time.

S: Well, judging from my experiences and interests from high school and college so far and from the occupational information here, plus the *Chappie* experiences, it looks like it points in that direction.

C: It all adds up?

S: Then, too, we also have this Ohio State Psychological score which indicates that I could do well in art school, too. One of the things I am thinking about is advertising, and advertisers work considerably with words—making up phrases and slogans and writing up copy and script of all kinds, and this is an important ability in that area, according to a pamphlet I read.

C: A lot of this just seems to fit together.

S: Well, I've still got . . . well, you know first of all, I think . . . well, we talked about it last time, and since then I've thought pretty carefully about that . . . that really I might disappoint my parents some, because they want me to be a doctor. But on the other hand, I ought to think pretty much about my girl friend, too, don't you think?

C: You are concerned about your parents' plans for you, but yet that girl friend is pretty important, too?

S: Well, I have to consider both, I guess. But I'm going to have to live with her and I'm not going to have to live with my parents. You know, I could go on to this art school in New York or to this agency in Washington where I had this offer. I don't know, it kind of leans toward the agency now . . . would you think it would be better to go there and get some experience first and come back to Stanford and finish up in maybe some course like business or . . . and go to art school later on . . . what do you think?

C: The agency job seems more attractive to you now, then?

- S: Well, I suppose it does for this reason—if we . . . if I went into apprentice training, I would still be making some money and my girl friend and I could probably get married then, don't you see?
- C: If you want a long-range point of view, you would probably be better off taking the apprentice training now, and then later on supplement it with some formal training?
- S: Yeah. Well, this girl friend of mine, you know, she . . . if I get into the art business, she'd stick with me, and I'm not so sure that if I went to school a couple of years whether she'd still be around. There are a lot of good football players down there at Fresno, you know.
- C: Kind of afraid to take a chance, huh?
- S: I guess that's right. Well, I think she would go along with me whatever I'd decide to do. I guess we both want to get married.
- C: That's most important right now.
- S: Yeah. I might change my mind tomorrow, I guess, but right now I think what I ought to do is to accept that offer up at Washington; and maybe, after I get settled there, we can get married, and after we've made a little money and have settled down, I can get a little more training later on. Kind of hard leaving Stanford; but after all, they don't have an art course here. . . . I think maybe it would be best to go up there. Gee, Dr.——, I certainly appreciate all this. . . . You've helped me here, giving me all these tests and so forth. I thought that information in the library was helpful, too. Sure appreciate this. Well, gee, I guess that just about cleans it up, then, doesn't it?
- C: That's it. I'd like to give you these test results that we've drawn out on these forms. This little brochure you see can be useful for showing to your parents and, perhaps, use in future employment situations and used as a permanent file for all your occupational plans. You can put these occupational study outlines in here along with your tests and keep a complete record of your vocational plans.
- S: Thanks. That would be good. It will be nice to keep for future reference.
- C: Yes. Oh, you can keep adding occupational information and other ideas as you go along. Add later tests if you feel they are necessary.
- S: You mean I can come back here and take some more tests later on?
- C: Yes. As your plans change, and if you decide to come back to Stanford some day, you are certainly welcome back here to go over your situation again.
- S: Gee, that sounds good. Well, thanks an awful lot, Dr.——, thanks a million.
- C: Yes, you're welcome, Jim. Good-by.
- S: Good-by.

A THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF THE CASE OF JIM WELSH

The Case of Jim Welsh illustrates the principle cited repeatedly in this volume that counseling is rarely vocational in essence. Many personal elements such as marriage plans, parental conflict, emancipation from home, and financial considerations entered into the process. Jim's aspirations and plans have changed, but this is due probably to the basic changes in self-structure which preceded positive planning and action. In terms of personality theory, Jim sought counseling because his concept of himself as a rather fair artist was contrary to his present experiences in pursuing unsuccessfully a premedical program. He had guilt feelings because of his parents' desires for him in medicine. His coming for counseling was precipitated by failures in biology and chemistry, together with recent developments in his love life and a recent opportunity for employment as an artist. As the case develops, we see that it becomes more clear to him that art and advertising are appropriate fields for him; it also becomes clear that his best course of action is to seek employment in art, to marry as soon as possible, and so emancipate himself from his parents. These plans appear to be in closest harmony with his values, goals, and ideals. It is thus apparent that counseling has resulted in basic changes in personality dynamics and that Jim has become more self-adjustive than he was before he sought counseling.

SUMMARY

The final phases of self-adjustive counseling are accomplished in the synthesis interview. This interview, or series of interviews, has usually three elements: (1) test interpretation, (2) discussion of occupational information, and (3) synthesis of tests, interviews, personal histories, and exploratory reading and thinking. This chapter contained a model synthesis interview. The Case of Jim Welsh illustrates that counseling is much broader than the surface vocational-planning elements.

Chapter 9

EVALUATING COUNSELING PROCEDURES

How effective is the counseling process? This is a crucial question, since determination of the difference between counseling as a valid procedure for helping people and pseudo counseling is contingent upon evaluation methods and criteria.

METHODS OF EVALUATION

Froehlich summarized recent evaluative techniques for guidance and counseling programs in his review of the literature. He classifies the methods into seven categories (60, p. 2):

1. External criteria, the do-you-do-this? method.
2. Follow-up, the what-happened-then? method.
3. Client opinion, the what-do-you-think? method.
4. Expert opinion, the "Information Please" method.
5. Specific techniques, the little-by-little method.
6. Within group changes, the before-and-after method.
7. Between-group changes, the what's-the-difference? method.

The first method is concerned with a comparison of existing programs with a set of standards agreed upon by guidance experts. An example of such standards is the U.S. Office of Education monograph "Criteria for Evaluating Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools" (188).

The second method, follow-up studies, is the best known. This method involves studying the activity of students after counseling. An example is a study by Williamson and Darley of 196 students who were interviewed a year after their experience at the Counseling Bureau (209).

The third method is that of asking students' opinions concerning the value of their guidance experiences. The latter half of this chapter is devoted to an elaboration of this method.

Another common method is that of asking guidance experts to study

a program for a period of time and offer their recommendations. A prominent example of this method is the appraisal of the Adjustment Service (New York City) by four independent workers who studied the program for a week.

The fifth method is the study of small elements of a guidance program, such as the value of occupational pamphlets, the usefulness of one test compared to another, and the comparison of two methods of counseling. The Stanford Guidance Study reported in this chapter exemplifies the evaluation of elements of a guidance program.

Between-group and within-group changes are experimental variations used to study counseling methods. An example of a within-group method is that of Adams, who sought to determine the effect of counseling on scholarship by comparing the grades of students before and after counseling. He concluded that counseling was a definite aid to scholarship (2). An example of the between-group method is that of the Stanford Guidance Study, reported in this volume, where two methods of counseling were compared by means of a control and an experimental group.

CRITERIA OF EFFECTIVE COUNSELING

The criterion, or standard, of successful counseling is as important as the method. A fundamental question at this point is: What outcomes do we expect from counseling? In guidance programs, and in counseling in particular, the student is concerned with knowledge about himself and the world of work, attitudes toward himself and others, and selected skills in personal problem solving. Counseling is regarded now as a learning situation comparable to the classroom. Therefore, evaluative techniques useful for assessing classroom outcomes would be applicable to evaluation of counseling. Travers, in his critical review of evaluation procedures, confirms this assertion: "Usually, in these learning situations the guidance worker is attempting to help the student to learn new behaviors which may solve immediate social difficulties or establish new long-term goals" (183, p. 211). Hamrin and Paulson devote a chapter in their *Counseling Adolescents* to the parallels between learning in the classroom and learning in the counseling interview (72).

Since counseling is a learning process, one criterion of successful

counseling would be the amount of factual material retained. The assumption is that these facts will be useful in later problem solving.

Another outcome of counseling is the attitudinal change in the student. It is felt that immediate student satisfaction with the guidance services, manifested by feeling tones, is another criterion for determining the worth of the counseling services to the student. Thirdly, it is felt that positive feelings toward self, in the form of self-direction and self-enhancement, are legitimate evaluative criteria.

The satisfaction criterion has been used by guidance evaluators, but their medium in most cases has been the questionnaire. Froehlich reports this "client opinion method" as a common evaluative procedure (60). Dressel, in a recent study on satisfaction with test interpretation, used a written questionnaire for a satisfaction measure (152). In the Stanford Guidance Study, it was found that client ratings of the questionnaire type are unsatisfactory and nondiscriminating among counseled groups (21, 162). These same responses, recorded and rated for feeling tone on a satisfaction scale, give a range of feelings capable of being rated on a fairly wide-range continuous scale. Questionnaires often penetrate into what the client is *thinking*, but it is doubtful whether a questionnaire indicates how he is *feeling* about the guidance services.

Many other criteria have been used for evaluating the success of counseling. Change of grades after counseling has been a popular criterion. While studies report generally higher grades after counseling, there are some studies which report inconclusive results. Kirchheimer (97) found a significant increase in grades after counseling, while Holtzman and Brammer (82) found nonsignificant changes in veterans' grades.

School dropouts have been another criterion, but chance factors contaminate this criterion. Dropout studies generally report about 50 per cent of the dropouts leaving school for economic reasons quite apart from any scholastic difficulties (1, 90).

Stability of occupational choice is another popular criterion (35). Studies generally report that about 75 per cent of those counseled remain in the objective which they chose during counseling. The majority of the studies reported by Froehlich were follow-ups to see if clients remained in the field for which they were "advised" (60). But if one assumes that counseling is a dynamic process where change of

objective may be beneficial to the client in light of new data, can one use *stability* as a valid criterion? The writers are inclined to answer negatively.

Job-satisfaction studies have been used as criteria. But these, too, are so contaminated by chance factors that one cannot confidently use job satisfaction as a criterion, especially for evaluation of planning-type counseling (86).

Williamson proposed judging the success of counseling from the write-up of the case (202). Unless the counselor is an excellent book-keeper, he is inclined not to record all significant proceedings of the case, thus making judgments based on the summary a questionable procedure.

Froehlich concludes that of the seven current evaluative methods there is no best method. He requests that "further research be directed toward the discovery of evaluative methods which meet acceptable standards, but which are not beyond the reach of the practicing counselor. . . . The lack of suitable criteria has been the greatest single difficulty of evaluation to date" (60, p. 16).

The remainder of this chapter further examines three criteria: (1) information, (2) feeling tone, and (3) self-direction.

Information

Factual information has been a popular criterion (166, 202). Again this is a narrow criterion with a questionable assumption that the information will automatically transfer to problem-solving situations after the immediate counseling experience.

Counselors accept a common corollary that the client must have facts about himself, the world of work, and the problem-solving methods before he can be self-directive about solving his present and future problems. A counseling test utilized in the Stanford Guidance Study had the purpose of sampling some of the facts and principles which the client learned about counseling.

The following questions stress the objectives which are considered to be important when using the information criterion:

1. Can the client differentiate accurately between types of tests—interest, aptitude, and personality?
2. Does he know the names of commonly used tests in guidance?
3. Does he know the values and limitations of tests?

4. Can he make elementary interpretations of test scores?
5. Does he know general occupational trends?
6. Does he know specific occupational information related to his chosen field?
7. Does he know of counseling resources on the campus other than the Stanford Guidance Center?
8. Does he have an accurate conception of his role in counseling?
9. Does he have an accurate conception of the counselor's role?
10. Is he familiar with other common sources of information?

Feeling Tone

Various criteria and their inadequacies have been discussed to emphasize the need for a more inclusive and internal criterion. How satisfied the client feels about the counseling experiences to which he has subjected himself is part of the principal criterion used in the Stanford Guidance Study. Satisfaction is a broad, inclusive concept. If the client is not satisfied with the guidance services, the chances seem great that the other criteria mentioned above are not giving positive results, either.

This degree of satisfaction was inferred from the content and feeling tone of the clients' statements. Feeling tone seems to be a more primary criterion than the classical ones mentioned earlier in this chapter. These feeling tones include feelings toward the counseling and informational services, the total process, the administration of the program, the tentative outcomes, and the personnel involved. Feelings toward self, especially those concerning self-understanding and self-direction, were included as a related, but separate, criterion.

The use of feeling-tone ratings as manifestations of a state of satisfaction with counseling may be warranted on more theoretical grounds in terms of motivation. If the person comes for counseling he generally comes seeking help in the solution of a problem. Accompanying this problem is at least some anxiety.¹ It should be emphasized that the common factor which seems to be present in clinical cases of diverse difficulties is anxiety, with its attendant defenses. While we are not dealing with extreme clinical cases in self-adjustive counseling, some anxiety is nevertheless present with an unresolved conflict or an unmade decision which is pressing for solution. The fact that the client has come for help indicates that he is dissatisfied with his present state

¹ The term "anxiety" in this context refers to a fear which has no definitive objective referent and is often spoken of as "free-floating" anxiety.

of affairs, and that possibly his anxiety about the future or his present school course is causing him more discomfort than the activity required to alleviate it.

If the counseling helps the client to make satisfactory decisions, thus reducing his anxiety somewhat, and at the same time alters the conditions which produced the anxiety (*e.g.*, lack of information about school, occupations, or self), then one might say counseling is satisfying to the student. He expresses these satisfactions in statements which indicate that he "feels better now," that he has been "put on his feet and headed in the right direction," and that he is "not worried now." Some verbatim comments from the Stanford Guidance Study emphasize this anxiety-reduction process.

CLIENT 92 (*when asked if his objective was the same as at the beginning of counseling*): I didn't have a definite objective, but it set the limits. I'm not worried.

CLIENT 68 (*when asked if his objective was the same*): The same objective, only I feel better. I don't feel like I'm wandering aimlessly around. I feel collected.

CLIENT 68 (*when asked if the guidance service helped to confirm his objective*): Yes, I came here with an idea; I began to wonder and now I feel secure.

CLIENT 61 (*when asked if his objective was the same*): I wasn't really too interested in medicine and plan to change my major. I feel I'm doing the right thing.

One will note the emphasis on the word "feel" in these comments and the expressions of confidence and relief. Since counseling is so much concerned with attitudinal learnings, there seems to be a place for feelings in the evaluation of successful learning. Shoben mentions, in addition to the overt behavioral learnings which take place in counseling, that there is "the kind of learning . . . which has to do chiefly with the alteration of motives and affective drives" (161, p. 372).

The question might be asked how it is known that the positive feelings expressed may be interpreted as satisfaction. This might be inferred from the content of a client's response. Client 61, above, illustrates this. His doubts about medicine have been confirmed and he feels that his substitute goal is right for him. The client's over-all comments about the helpfulness of the service also give leads concerning the amount of anxiety reduction that has taken place and the consequent satisfaction with his new course of action.

The crucial question at this point is: Assuming the client is satisfied and enthusiastic about the guidance service, how do you know whether he will continue being satisfied and will be able to solve similar future problems? A definite answer to this question cannot be given until future follow-up studies are completed on the clients whose counseling has been evaluated in this fashion. It is realized that an intermediate criterion of success in counseling would be the satisfactory choice of and progress in a major, and that the ultimate criterion of good counseling would be the choice of satisfying life activities.

A partial answer to the question concerning client continuation with plans made in counseling may be found again in terms of learning theory. Miller (118) and Mowrer (120), in working with rats, found that when the state interpreted as anxiety was reduced it tended to reinforce the behavior which reduced the anxiety. Miller and Mowrer postulate that anxiety acts like a drive in a manner similar to hunger or thirst. The client comments quoted in connection with the anxiety-reduction discussion seem to lend credence to a belief that the same mechanism might be operating in humans. Shoben describes this process as the lifting of repressions, and then "following the development of insight, as anxiety is dissipated through conditioning, the patient typically begins to plan" (161, p. 389). Here the counselor helps the client formulate his goals clearly and realistically. Shoben's formulation was in terms of more serious clinical cases, but there seems no reason to disbelieve that the same process might take place in general clinical-counseling cases,² in most of which the problem is not one of simply deciding among available alternatives.

The reinforcement theory of Thorndike and Hull seems to fit the anxiety-reduction hypothesis. Thorndike stated his modified law of effect as the strengthening of a connection when accompanied by a satisfying state of affairs (80). Hull also emphasizes drive reduction as a reinforcing state in his hypothetico-deductive system (161). On the other hand, Tolman and Guthrie, while differing in basic theoretical orientation, agree on the principle of contiguity as a basic condition for learning (161, p. 80). This principle deemphasizes the importance of reinforcement in learning, and indicates that learning which takes place in the guidance process might be explained on principles other than reinforcement.

² The term "general clinical counseling" is attributed to Hahn and MacLean (71).

The purpose of this discussion is to indicate the importance of drives in determining behavior. If one can alter the drives, according to reinforcement theory, he can alter behavior (159). If one assumes anxiety to be a drive, which, when reduced, will reinforce the behavior in progress at the moment, he might say that the problem-solving methods will probably be continued and that insights reached in counseling will tend to be carried through to action. The only indicators that the anxiety has been reduced are the client's feelings expressed toward himself and the counseling services. These feelings give inferences concerning his state of satisfaction.

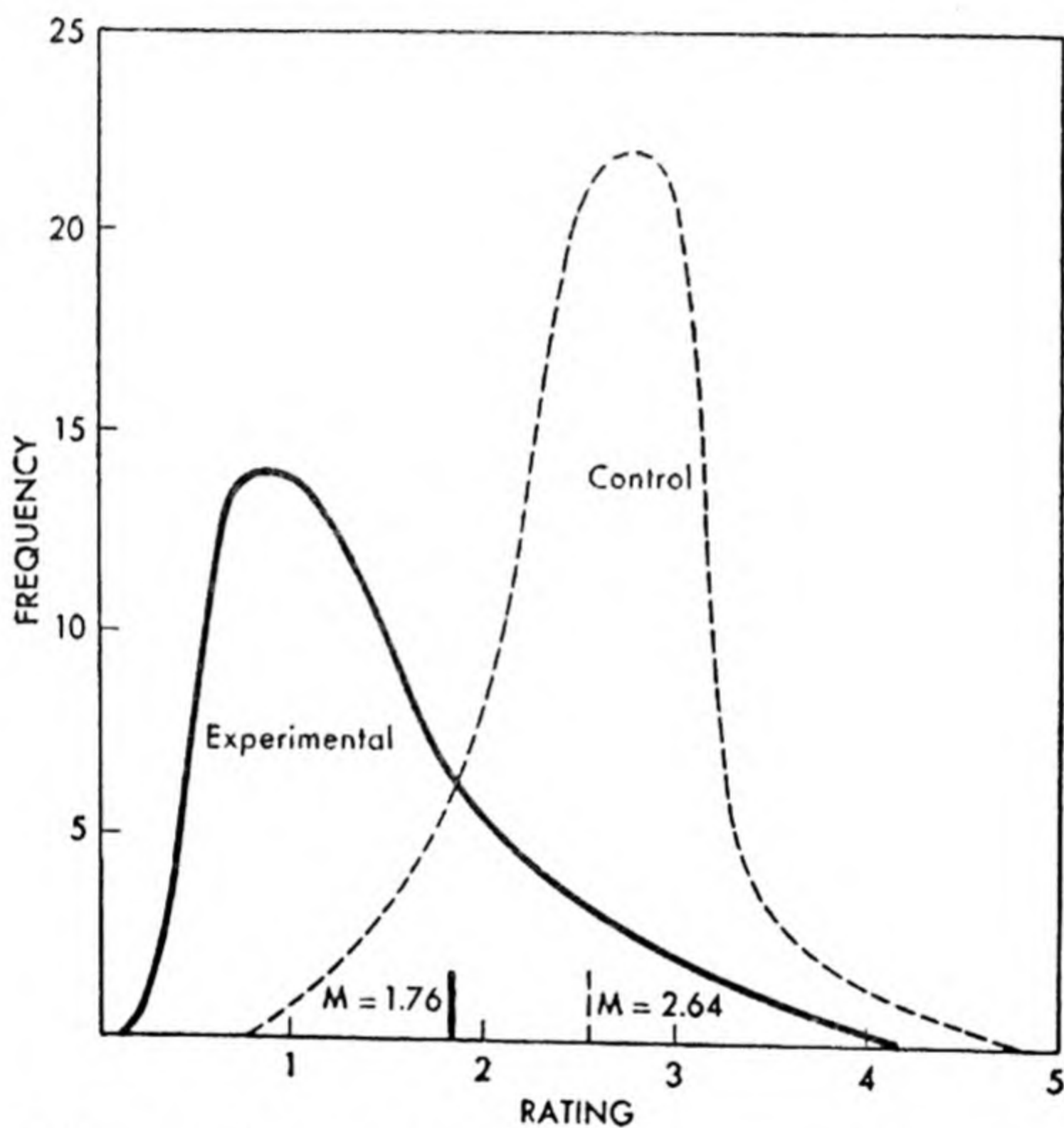


FIG. 30. MEAN OVER-ALL FEELING TONE RATINGS.
(Mean of four different raters)

The Stanford Guidance Study employed the feeling-tone criterion described above. Results indicated that the feeling-tone criterion differentiated between two counseled groups—one counseled in a self-adjustive manner (the experimental group), another in the traditional manner (the control group). Figure 30 illustrates this difference.

Self-direction

Counseling can be said to be successful when the individual has re-integrated his self-concept to include goals more consistent with his aptitudes, interests, and self-perceptions. The fundamental need for maintenance and enhancement of self has been satisfied and is ac-

accompanied by feelings of self-direction. These feelings exist within the self. However, since counseling is an experience the purpose of which is to reorient the self, it is likely that client satisfaction at the completion of counseling would be twofold; it would be satisfaction not only with the reintegrated self-concept, but with the experience which has assisted the individual in reintegration and redirection of the self, that experience which satisfied the need existing when the individual sought counseling. In other words, measures of client attitude about *himself in relation to a counseling experience* (measures of self-direction) would probably be valid criteria for measurement of success of counseling.

The following examples illustrate the attitudes of clients which exist when counseling has been successful:

This [counseling experience] has been an incentive for me [self-concept] to pull myself together.

This has started me thinking.

I'm on the right track now.

I have a firmer foundation now to go ahead.

All of the above comments show evidence of (1) feelings of self-direction and (2) evidence of a need now satisfied.

In the Stanford Guidance Study, the question on which clients were rated on self-direction was: "How do you feel now about planning *your own* educational and vocational future?"

This question was the most important one asked in the evaluation interview, because it attempts to get a measure of *self-direction* in the students after completing guidance. The over-all ratings for this question were based on the following five-point scale:

1. Highly self-directive
2. Generally self-directive
3. Self-directive, but with some reservations
4. Somewhat dependent on counselor or others
5. Highly dependent on counselor or others

The ratings show that students counseled in the permissive fashion were significantly more self-directive than were those counseled in the traditional manner (162). Figure 31 illustrates this difference.

An analysis of client responses to this question may result in an indi-

cation of reasons for this difference. Clients counseled in the traditional manner showed responses of which the following are typical:

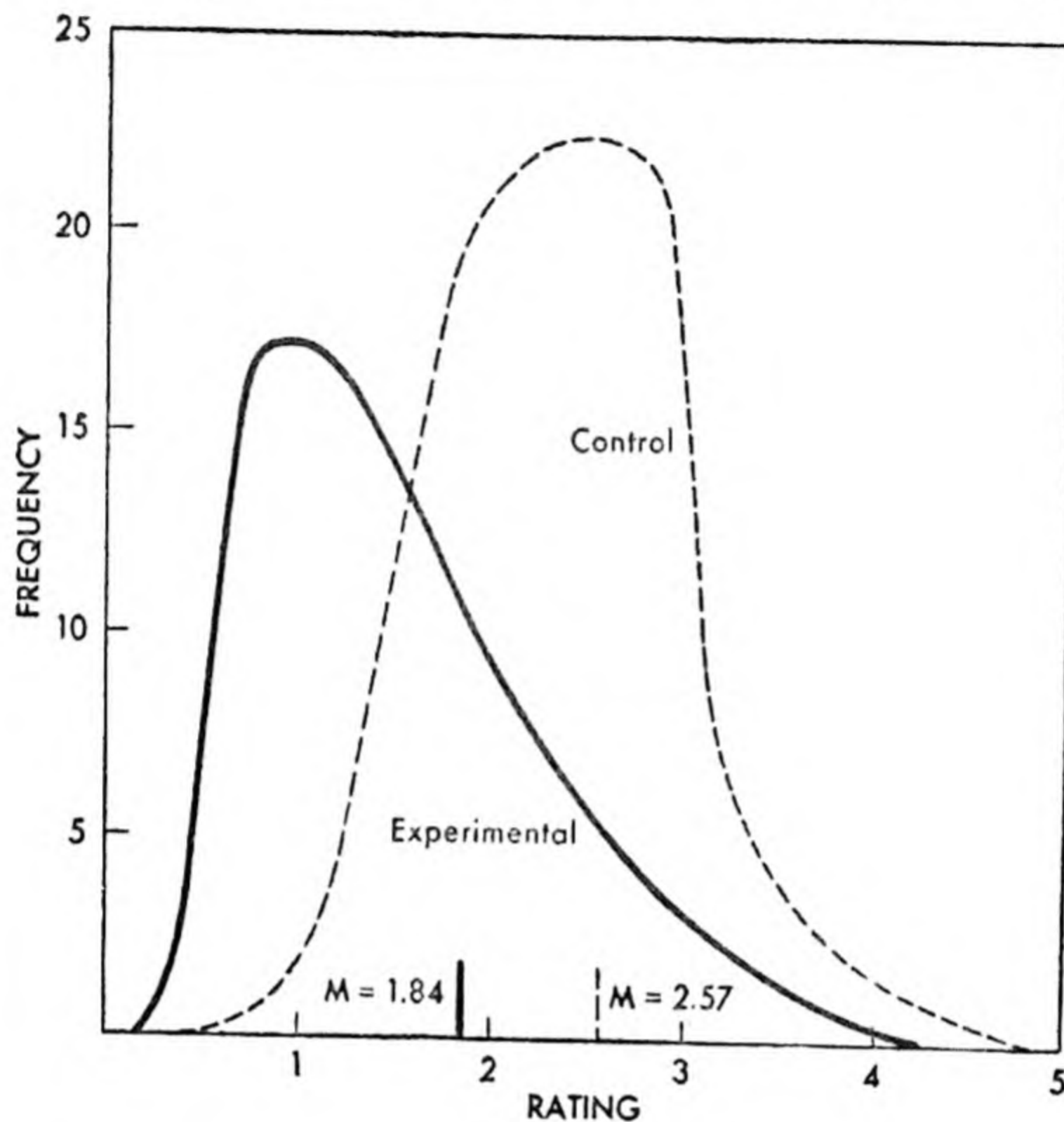


FIG. 31.

CLIENT 5: I feel much better than I did before I went through the Guidance Bureau. . . . I can probably take over myself—but I'd probably like later on to come back and check with someone who knows more about it than I do.

CLIENT 8: This thing has been an incentive for me to pull myself together. It started me thinking.

CLIENT 10: I don't, honestly. I think that the more help I can get in the line, the better off not only will I feel, but I will be quite sure that I'd be getting a more definite thing and I wouldn't be playing around.

CLIENT 13: I am still on a kind of rocky boat—I still don't know what I want to do.

CLIENT 23: They put the facts before me—I have to explore now and get a better idea—I can always go in and talk to the counselor and get reassurance.

CLIENT 24: I have appreciated the opportunity offered—it has stimulated me. It is more valuable than any decision reached.

CLIENT 40: I think I can go ahead and do it without much hesitation and doubt. I would like to express my gratitude.

CLIENT 47: Yes, I can go ahead. I will need some help in choosing my subjects and courses. I know what my major is going to be. I'm very satisfied and glad I had the chance.

The above comments perhaps show a degree of self-direction on the part of students in the traditionally counseled group, but one would probably agree that there is a certain amount of reservation in their comments. In comparison, the following are comments selected from the self-adjustive group:

CLIENT 60: I have decided what I want to be and will plan my major—I feel a lot more confident—I got quite a bit out of it.

CLIENT 65: I feel that it remains to be seen; I feel that I'm more confident and feel that I am going on the road I wanted to. All freshmen should be able to take advantage of it.

CLIENT 68: I feel secure, I feel as if I'm headed on the right track—like I have something to walk on.

CLIENT 69: I think this will help me a very great deal—choosing my courses and where to go. If a person relies on another person's decisions, you get in that habit; and that's not good. There is a tendency to blame another person for what you have done, when it isn't justified.

CLIENT 71: I think the information I have, the work on my part—put them all together and I'll come out with something good. Yes, this helped in making me confident.

CLIENT 76: I've got the facts. Now all I have to do is to take them home to my father and talk them out. I can get my father's reactions and the rest of the family's, too.

CLIENT 79: I have a firmer foundation now to go ahead. I think I'm headed in the right direction.

CLIENT 83: I'm not as confident as I wish, but I'm more confident that I can do what I think I wanted to do.

CLIENT 89: Well, I think I'm the only one who can do it, really. It's my life. If someone told me I had to do it, I wouldn't have done it. It has sure helped.

CLIENT 91: I have more confidence than I had before. My objective seems more practical now. . . . I have a recognizable goal.

CLIENT 94: I feel I am capable; I am not worried about it now; I have a genuine interest in picking my own vocation. I know that if I find out I'm not, I can adjust according to the flexible schedule set up for me.

The comments of the self-adjustive group, listed above, appear to have a greater degree of positivism in them than those of the traditional group. These clients not only *feel* that they can take over, but they are *confident* that they can. The difference between the groups is not startling, but it certainly is significant. A conclusion that may be drawn

is that when students are counseled in a permissive, accepting manner which stimulates them to make their own decisions, they are better prepared after counseling to take charge of their own lives.

SUMMARY

Froehlich's seven general methods of evaluating guidance procedures were analyzed and illustrated with studies from the field of counseling. It was concluded that there is no one best method. Consideration was given, however, to three criteria for evaluating the success or failure of counseling. These methods are (1) information, (2) feeling tone, and (3) self-direction. The self-adjustive method of counseling was evaluated by means of these three criteria. The self-adjustive approach was found to be more effective than a traditional approach.

Chapter 10

ALL-CAMPUS APPLICATIONS

This book has been concerned primarily with principles and techniques of counseling as they would be employed in schools and colleges. In this chapter, consideration will be given to applications and implications of the techniques described for other aspects of school and college academic and personnel work.

THE POWER OF PERMISSIVE RELATIONSHIPS IN TEACHING

Counselors in the highly intimate, individual process of counseling have demonstrated that a primary ingredient of growth is the release of the creative energies of youth. These findings would seem to apply with almost equal force to much of the teaching relationship with students. There is a recognizable difference in the lines of responsibility felt by most school and college teachers, motivated as they are to the pursuit and dissemination of truth in their particular areas of scholarship. This is recognized as a particularly strong motive of the college professor. Yet every teacher feels keenly the other responsibility of assisting youth to learn not just what is now known but to go beyond present knowledge. It is to this second area of responsibility, the responsibility for guiding the learning process of each individual student, that the permissive techniques and relationships which have been demonstrated in the counseling situation would seem to apply.

Nathaniel Cantor has explored this possibility. He stresses permissivism as a frame of reference for the teacher. Cantor has outlined a learner-centered approach in his book and supports his views with experimental data. He writes:

The problem of getting an author's insight across to the reader is always present—especially in a work of this kind which deals with processes of growth. Such insight as I may have has grown out of my professional and personal experiences. It has developed as a result of struggling to achieve the self-discipline which allowed me to permit students to grow and develop in terms of themselves. Insight is achieved through overcoming one's natural

tendency to have students believe what the instructor believes and feel as he feels. Every instructor must live through his own teaching experiences and develop his own professional self in order to learn how to apply the method described in this study (28).

Kelley, on the basis of experiments in visual perceptions at the Hanover Institute, concludes that perception is the basis of learning. Perceptions come from within. They are real to the individual only as they relate to his past experience. He writes: "These ideas make trouble for those who would pose as authorities. . . . You and I can never get into his [the individual's] exact place. . . . We can, of course, learn from others, but we can only learn those parts of what others can offer which we can fit into our experience and purpose" (95).

Rogers (137) and others also support the notions expressed above. If the results of their research and other evidence in the counseling area are taken seriously, perhaps consideration should be given to the merits of giving the student greater responsibility in organizing his own education in a real and genuine fashion. Perhaps emphasis should shift from a preoccupation with subject-matter mastery to the development of understandings and creation of atmospheres conducive to meaningful individual learning experiences.

GROUP PROGRAMS DESIGNED TO ASSIST THE STUDENT IN MEETING INDIVIDUAL PROBLEMS

It is recognized that many schools and colleges today are not financially able to make individualized counseling available to an unlimited number of students. Group adaptations of individualized techniques are, therefore, the next best alternative. Some of the ends which may be accomplished through group-guidance processes are:

1. To increase student awareness of unique and common problems
2. To provide information for meeting commonly felt needs
3. To provide the opportunity for group discussion and process in aiding individual adjustment

The foregoing purposes would appear to be most easily accomplished through the medium of a freshman course in adjustment psychology, designed to orient the new student to college life. Such a course at the high-school level would come in the senior year. It is often called "senior problems." At the ninth-grade level, such an orientation course

could help the students to face and solve adolescent problems. Such courses can be designed to include many elements usually covered in more personalized counseling. The writers' experience in teaching such courses suggests that a unit on personal adjustment or mental hygiene, a unit on study habits, and a unit on life planning should be included.

In such a course, a device which is helpful to the teacher is a student Information Summary, similar to that described in Chapter 6. Teachers who wish to know their students more intimately find that the completion of such a form by all students early in the semester enables them to get information which is helpful in gaining a more personal understanding of each student. Further, it is a medium which often leads to contacts which reveal areas of personal adjustment needing further individualized services.

In the unit on life planning, it is convenient to administer certain tests to the entire class. The greatest difficulty in the past has been that of interpreting adequately these tests in a group situation. Experience indicates that this can be rather easily done by the projection of a Test Interpretation form, like that described in Chapter 8, on a large screen. The teacher can then provide appropriate examples or suggestions for interpreting the different types of tests. The group is enabled to interpret various individual profiles themselves, with the aid of the instructor.

A study on occupations should be included also in the life-planning unit. Career Study Outlines, such as those described in Chapter 8, can be employed. The preparation of a Life-planning Brochure may serve as the term paper for such a course. The elements could be essentially the same as those described in Chapter 8, except that the student should be encouraged to do more extensive research in his areas of interest than is ordinarily done in individual counseling.

It would appear that a course of study such as that outlined above would provide a much-needed vehicle for integration of the student counseling program with the academic program.

AIDING STUDENTS TO REACH HIGHER LEVELS OF ADJUSTMENT

The provision of counseling and other individualized adjustment services in schools and colleges is relatively in its infancy. One finds in college circles a loosely generalized attitude that the college student is

there for the pursuit of knowledge and that the role of the college is to provide him with appropriately designed, sequential-content learning experiences.

The college is, in fact, a selective institution and has no direct obligation to provide any form of custodial treatment to those who do not find and appreciate profitable learning experiences. This attitude either rejects the concept and service of counseling or relegates it to the task of dealing with the unusual and maladjusted.

One also finds another commonly held point of view, a view which does not exclude the previously expressed attitude. This is the feeling that the counselor is a human engineering expert, that he is able with extensive and scientifically respectable training to diagnose student problems and to prescribe solutions. There is no question but what this point of view has been encouraged, if not definitely cultivated, by counselors in their early efforts to gain establishment on college campuses and in public schools. One has to present promise of having something fairly definite to sell before he can interest many customers. These two points of view regarding counseling do exist and do find comfort and justification in the work that many counseling programs have undertaken.

The methods that have been explored in this treatise on counseling would seem to refute the type of counseling which provides a highly diagnostic service for maladjusted students. Emphasis has been placed on the fact that many students meet problems which they can now efficiently handle with the aid of a type of counseling service which *supports* rather than *limits* their responsibilities for self-direction: It has been emphasized that these techniques in this volume are designed particularly for working with *normal students*, not with the deviate, either intellectual or emotional.

An intriguing possibility is presented by this promise of a new relationship in dealing with students. So far, counselors have been limited largely to dealing with those students who are in difficulty of one kind or another. What would happen if the student who was performing at a satisfying academic and adjustive level were to find a way to make even more progress in scholarship and in personal adjustment? Is there here the unexplored elements of a developmental program which will enable the *already able* student to achieve higher levels of adjustment? Robinson discusses this viewpoint:

Counselors should be more than repairmen straightening or replacing offending parts. Counselors should so stimulate the client that he attains new and higher levels of effectiveness in meeting new situations. This may include a general growth in maturity of viewpoint, in independence, in responsibility, and in personality integration, although research is needed to enable us more adequately to define these worth-while levels. But more than such rather nebulous overall maturation, there is need to devise and teach higher-level techniques of adjusting which will place the average individual as far above the present-day "normal" individual in solving frustrating situations as the swimmer who uses the Australian crawl is above the self-taught dog-paddler (133, pp. 19-20).

Much research still needs to be done in this area of counseling with normal students, such as a school and college population represents. It is felt that the techniques which are now available to professional workers in the field offer bases for effective research. These techniques need further testing at every point. The extent to which the self-adjustive approach, with its nonjudgmental flavor, is effective needs to be determined with large populations of students who exhibit problems of insecurity. Further, comparisons need to be made with the effect of a supportive and strongly encouraging relationship. It may be found that with some students, supportive and encouraging techniques are more effective in aiding them to reach higher levels of adjustment than are permissive and nonjudgmental techniques. Clues need to be discovered which will aid in the determination of appropriate techniques with each individual. Such clues would be of value not only to the counselor but also to the instructors and other staff members.

The particular technique of using modern recording instruments needs further exploration. Recordings were used in this study for the purposes of obtaining data for research. These experimenters have the hunch that the presence and use of the recording instrument had definite effects on the outcomes. The writers can certainly bear witness to the fact that the use of the recording instrument had definite effects on the development of techniques and skills, such as reflection, interpretation, and illustration. Assuming that this use of recordings has such values, it may be true that the use of recording instruments in classrooms might create tremendous changes in the effectiveness of instructions.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL AND COLLEGE FOR ASSISTING STUDENTS IN LIFE PLANNING

The point has been made in dealing with the counseling of normal students that many are concerned with attaining adequate and appropriate educational and occupational information for wise personal planning. Both the changing economic patterns in society and the tremendous increase in numbers of young people attending college indicate a need for revision of the whole concept of occupational outlets for college graduates. This is another area which demands not only economic and sociological research but also the development of tested occupational-information material for use with college students.

Colleges have, by tradition, neglected to give much consideration to occupational-information needs of college students other than to appoint placement secretaries. Yet the concept of counseling now held in many secondary schools is that a high-school youth's decision to go to college is a satisfactory educational-vocational goal at that stage of development. This leaves the task of aiding the college youngster to make vocational decisions up to the college. Not only research but the preparation of informative, readable materials for use at this level is needed. The materials which have been prepared are now addressed primarily to high-school youth.

THE NEED FOR RESEARCH IN DEVELOPING GUIDANCE TESTS APPROPRIATE FOR USE AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

Emphasis has been placed on the student's need for objective data which help him to gain a clearer understanding of his own interests and abilities. Yet colleges have traditionally limited the use of aptitude and ability tests to the admissions program. Other than the Strong Interest Inventory, which was developed basically on college students, there are few "guidance tests" which have been developed for college-student, standardized populations.

Recent research in the area of mental testing suggests that the concept of differential abilities is more useful for guidance purposes and is a more valid picture of intellectual abilities than the global type of

intelligence test. Certain factor-type intelligence batteries have been developed for use in high-school counseling, such as the Primary Mental Abilities Test and the Differential Aptitude Tests. Norms are not available on college populations, however. Such tests as the Michigan Vocabulary, the American Council on Education Psychological Exam, and the Ohio State Psychological Exam have college norms, but these represent just about the extent of tests of this nature. Further, these have been used primarily for admission purposes. A few instruments like the Engineering-Physical Science Aptitude Test have been developed particularly for use on the college level. There is a need for the development of many more such instruments which could be used for college-level guidance.

THE NEED FOR FOLLOW-UP STUDIES

Research is sketchy also in the area of follow-up studies of high-school and college graduates. This is true particularly when one looks for data on the relationship of activities and achievements, other than grades made and degrees earned, to success in later life. Are there differentials in the contributions of such activities as academic achievement, participation in student government, and other leadership activities, in social and club programs, in the nature of reading and self-study projects, which have significant relationships with various criteria of successful living after graduation? If the counselor is to be an informed resource person in aiding his clients to interpret and evaluate the contributions of the several facets of school and college life to the achievement of his goals, he needs other than common-sense evaluations of the wide range of activities open to him.

THE NEED FOR CLARIFYING THE ROLE OF THE COUNSELOR IN THE ACADEMIC STRUCTURE

Research is needed also in the area of effective relationships between the college counseling staff and the college staff as a whole. Patterns of counseling which have been explored have tended to be either of the faculty-advisor type or of the counseling-center type. In one case, the counselor was trained primarily for an institutional capacity in some

subject-matter field. In the other, the counselor was frequently a completely separate entity from the academic and even the residence and social departments of the institution. If the counselor is to serve all students, he must work out a relationship which extends his contacts among both faculty and students.

At the high-school level, also, the role of the counselor is not clear. Some schools adhere to the "teacher-counselor" idea, and maintain that in order to be an effective counselor one must have an academic relationship with students as well. A few schools hire full-time counselors, but often they become plagued with many administrative duties and often even disciplinary duties. The danger of the latter is particularly evident. One finds it difficult to be permissive and accepting of the student one moment, and reprimanding and judgmental the next.

Group applications of counseling philosophy and techniques which have been suggested imply a much closer and more responsible relationship between the counselor and other staff members. Research is needed in differential patterns of counseling services. College counselors, for example, would seem to be the most logical ones to teach freshman orientation courses. Many secondary schools have found it advisable to use counselors as members of the curriculum-development staff of the institution and as teachers of senior problems courses. The college counselor, too, is a person who by virtue of his training and experience is prepared to represent a continuing source of information on student needs, attitudes, and learning characteristics. As college teachers become more concerned with the motivational force of individual needs and interests, this need for information regarding individual students will become more keenly felt. This suggests an additional area of counselor service to and with staff members as well as with students.

COUNSELOR TRAINING

It would appear that the process of counselor training needs, today, ways and means by which students can acquire not just a *knowledge about* counseling, but also a *knowledge of acquaintance*. The latter, of course, cannot develop just from having read a textbook on counseling.

Modern devices such as wire, tape, and disk recorders have con-

tributed greatly to the difficult task of evaluating the proficiency of counseling. Since the psychological climate of the interview cannot be transcribed, this technique is limited. Perhaps sound movies will help to overcome this difficulty.

Counseling proficiency can come only by actual practice and experience. It is hoped, however, that this book will help the counselor to bridge more easily the gap between knowledge about and knowledge of acquaintance in counseling.

SUMMARY

The provision of counseling services for all students is a relatively recent venture in American higher education. It has been emphasized here that the most effective frame of reference for working with these young people is a permissive, internally oriented attitude which regards the self-adjustive student as its goal. The point has been made that personnel who are adequate to meet this task must offer something more than a friendly ear and a pat on the back. Student counseling is coming of age as a professional field. It has undertaken the task of rehabilitating those who in former times would have been summarily dropped from the rolls, and it has succeeded with many. Student personnel counseling is on the way to developing a body of knowledge and a record of service which can assist all those who are seeking higher levels of happiness and productivity. *All students need, and most students want, such help.*

Appendix A

SAMPLE EVALUATION INTERVIEW—CLIENT 75

- I. Did you receive any counseling in high school?
- C. Nothing comparable to what I've received here. They did very little testing. It was mainly on what interests we thought we had. Well, say, first I thought I might like to go into law, and I told that to my counselor, and she let out a roar.
- I. I see. From then on, you were a lawyer.
- C. Yes. It was practically that. I was very unimpressed with any counseling I got in high school, or any time before that.
- I. I see. How do you feel about the counseling you've had here?
- C. Wonderful.
- I. At least when compared to high-school counseling, it's good.
- C. Yes. Even not in comparison.
- I. You still think it's good.
- C. Yes.
- I. I can't shake you from that, can I?
- C. No.
- I. I realize that you're still a freshman, and that you might feel that it's a little early to pick out a specific vocational objective. However, as a result of this counseling, do you have a more clear idea of your future plans?
- C. Yes. I think this is a very opportune time for this to come, because as we come to college as freshmen, we are a little bit mixed up as to where and how to go. At least I was. I know quite a few who were. And I think that this is the most opportune time because it comes just before we have to plan a major, and it comes, as I say, at a time when we're usually mixed up.
- I. Not only the service is good, but the timing has been good also?
- C. Yes.
- I. Do you feel that the tests you took here helped you?
- C. Yes. I would say that, too.
- I. Did they help you considerably, some, a little, or not at all?
- C. I would go so far as to say considerably. They brought me out of a fog, so to speak. As I say, I had thought of law, mainly because I had very

few mechanical interests or mathematical interests, so my interests went to law or social-science career of some sort. But I wasn't sure, you see. When I got here and took these tests, and the results came out very satisfying to me and to my counselor, along that same line, I felt that it gave me a much clearer understanding of where I was going.

I. You'd say that the tests tended to help confirm?

C. Yes, because I had some idea.

I. Sort of crystallized your thinking that you were on the right track.

C. Yes. And another thing that I liked is that it showed me that there are other possibilities, along the same line. I came into contact with many other fields that are connected with the field that I had thought of before.

I. In the event that a detour seems feasible?

C. Yes.

I. You'll know where the detour leads.

C. Yes.

I. What about the conferences with your counselor? Did they help you considerably, some, very little, or not at all?

C. I would say that I would have to say considerably there, too. My counselor was very good, and I liked him very much, and I thought he helped me quite a bit because he seemed to know what he was talking about and he seemed to know what I meant when I was talking.

I. You people understood each other!

C. Yes.

I. And as a result of this, you understand yourself better.

C. Yes.

I. Did your counselor take notes or write during the interview with you?

C. Not that I recall. Oh, yes, he did. The first interview he did a little. When we were choosing the tests, he did a little. In the second interview, he wrote things for my own benefit.

I. I see. You thought that what he was writing was actually for your benefit. He wasn't writing down bad comments about you.

C. No, no, I didn't get that impression at all.

I. What about the information in the vocational library here. Has it helped you considerably, some, very little, or not at all?

C. Considerably. I mentioned that to my counselor—that I thought the library was a very wonderful addition to the guidance service, in that I spent a couple of afternoons there, and browsed through a couple of books there that contained very valuable information for me, and that also led to the same conclusion that I have now, that it steered me away from one particular field and showed me other interests along the same line.

I. Still in the general area of law, though.

C. Yes.

I. You've given rather complete answers here so far, so maybe we'll recapitulate some of what you've already said. Can you think of anything specific that you got from this guidance service that will help in your future planning. You mentioned some secondary choices.

C. Well, one of the choices that it showed me that I had open to me for my interests were in advertising or sales—working with other people. And in my work in the library, I looked up some information along that line, and I found some specific details there that were a help.

I. Still in the area of persuading people, isn't it?

C. Yes.

I. Which law is, quite frequently.

C. Yes. I scored very highly on one test on persuasion, and I think these tests proved where my interests are.

I. Sounds like a good, budding Fuller Brush man here. What aspects of the program would you say were of most value to you?

C. Well, the tests in part, and probably more valuable were the discussion and interview on the tests. I found that the last interview with the counselor, when we discussed my grades on the tests, and he explained them to me, and explained a few other things to me, much the most valuable, and brought me to my conclusion.

I. Did you find any aspects of the program that you would say were of least value to you?

C. Well, probably the original—well, it wasn't an interview—when all three of the counselors talked to us that first night.

I. That group meeting?

C. Yes, the group meeting. I wouldn't say that that wasn't good, because I thought it was. But I would say that it was the least valuable.

I. In comparison to all the others?

C. Yes.

I. But by itself, in its own right, it was helpful.

C. Yes, it was, because again it brought us out of the fog, because we had no idea of what this was.

I. A briefing, wasn't it, as to what was going to happen?

C. Yes.

I. At least I guess that's what happened. That's what you fellows keep telling me. Do you have any comments on the receptionist?

C. I thought she was very, very nice. I—she gave me a very good first impression of the service. That's important—very helpful.

I. Do you have any comments on the psychometrist? The girl who gave you the tests?

- C. She was very efficient. I didn't have much chance to form any conclusion other than that. She was very helpful in arranging dates.
- I. What comment would you make on your counselor?
- C. I liked him very much. I think I base part of my success in this guidance on him, because he really did some good for me. Without him, I would have really been lost—even more lost than I was.
- I. It sounds as though you think the counselor must be a pretty good sort of guy.
- C. Yes. Very much so.
- I. What would you say about the general administration of the guidance center? Would you say that it seems to be operating efficiently and smoothly?
- C. Yes. Everything was well planned. I got through one stage, and I made appointments for the next stage of the program, and it ran very efficiently. Of course, it was left up to us what dates we had free, but everything followed each other in its natural sequence.
- I. Actually, it's probably more difficult to run an organization where the clients set the dates than to set the dates arbitrarily. I hadn't thought of that before, but your comment brought that to mind.
- C. Yes.
- I. It's easy to make out a set of interviews and say, "You show up at such and such time."
- C. When they had to conform to our schedules, it shows how good they are.
- I. Do you think that this service should be made available to all Stanford students?
- C. I don't know about all Stanford students. I would highly recommend it to freshmen, and maybe sophomores, but I really don't think that it would be worth the effort for kids beyond that level. I think that if it came as you started out as freshmen, it wouldn't be necessary after that, because the good that you get out of the program would save any further change, to a certain degree; of course, there will always be exceptions.
- I. What would you say if the program were put into effect next fall? I'm not sure that it will be. It may not. But in the event that it were, would you limit it to freshmen, or would you give the upperclassmen or graduates a chance with the program if they so desired?
- C. This is next fall?
- I. Yes.
- C. Well, as a starting point, I would say that I would give it to all freshmen, and make it available to other members of the university. But I wouldn't make an attempt to give it to everybody in the university.

- I. You're suggesting that the freshmen have a greater need for it.
- C. Yes. Of course, I'm a little partial to the freshmen, but I do think that it would be more valuable to them.
- I. Yes, it would come earlier in their program, and, as you say, if the freshmen were more sure of themselves, there would be no need for them to take it later.
- C. Yes, that's right.
- I. Something about an "ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." We don't like to think of guidance in terms of dollars and cents, but if you were asked to make an estimate of the value of this service, what would you say it's worth?
- C. Well, in value to me—it's hard to put it in terms of dollars and cents—well, offhand, I'd say a hundred dollars.
- I. Well, we're not going to send you a bill for that, so you're safe. Going back to this idea of making the service more available, would you make any changes or revisions in the service?
- C. No, not that I can think of. No, everything seemed to be as totally effective as I would think it could be.
- I. We assume that you came to the guidance center because you felt that you could get some benefit from it. Did you get what you expected?
- C. I think I got more than I expected.
- I. You've said "yes" several times in answer to that question. Do you have a summary of test information to which you can refer later?
- C. Yes. They gave me a very comprehensive booklet that contained all my tests, the answers and scales, and then information that my counselor gave me, and helped me compile from my tests. A booklet that I'm sure I can use quite often.
- I. In general, I take it that you think that booklet is a pretty good thing?
- C. Yes.
- I. You mention that both you and your counselor had sort of contributed to it.
- C. Yes.
- I. You worked it out together?
- C. Yes, during the last interview.
- I. Did you feel self-conscious about coming to the guidance center?
- C. No, you can't feel self-conscious with the kind of people you come in contact with.
- I. How do your friends feel about your coming over here?
- C. The friends of mine who didn't get in on this feel very bad—that they missed out. We now realize that it's a wonderful opportunity for us. My friends, as I say, feel bad that they were not here among the first.
- I. How long ago was your last interview?

C. Last Friday.

I. You haven't had much chance to talk it over with your folks then, have you?

C. No. They were up here over Easter and I told them about it, and they thought it was very wonderful. And I wrote them the minute I had my final interview, and sent them the booklet. They'll be very pleased, because I was very pleased with the conclusion.

I. It'll make the whole family happy! Your vocational objective is pretty much the same objective you had when you started then?

C. Yes, pretty much, only broadened. I came in with a little narrow view, and you helped to broaden my view.

I. Yes. And I think you said that your objective had not only been broadened, but had been made stronger, or confirmed.

C. Yes, that conveys the general idea.

I. Do you feel that the total counseling program here has helped give you a more clear idea of yourself, your abilities, your interests?

C. Of my abilities and interests, both, yes.

I. Would you say that it helped you considerably, some, a little, or not at all?

C. Considerably.

I. How do you feel now about planning *your own* future?

C. I feel that with this basis, from now on, it's up to me, and I feel that it's a pretty firm basis on which to form my own conclusions. Very valuable.

I. You'd say then that you feel pretty confident.

C. Yes.

I. What comment would you make on the guidance center?

C. Well, I was impressed very considerably with it, and as I said before, it would be very valuable to anyone who is lucky enough to be given the guidance.

Appendix B

VERBATIM RECORDING OF A GROUP ORIENTATION

(This is a verbatim account of the precounseling orientation discussion as recorded on a wire recorder.)

MR. G. B.: You are probably wondering, fellows, why we asked you to come to this group meeting. Well, we wanted to be sure to see you before your first interview with your vocational counselor to explain a few things about this counseling service. We hope that this group discussion will give you an understanding of what you can expect to get out of these tests which you will take, what you can expect from the interviews which you will have with your vocational counselor. In other words, we hope that this meeting will give you a clearer picture of what this vocational guidance service is all about.

Before we begin our discussion, let me introduce a few people who are here with me tonight. First of all, allow me to introduce myself. My name is George Barahal and I am director of the Guidance Center. On my right are Lawrence Brammer and Everett Shostrom, specialists in the field of vocational guidance, who are working with me on this research project. Take a bow, gentlemen.

One of the things we have found in our counseling of students in the Guidance Center for the past three years is that we are not completely successful with all of them. We have some failures. We believe that one of the reasons for failures is that the student, when he comes in for counseling, may have only a vague notion of what this service is all about. He may not understand what the counselor can offer, or what these tests can do. He may think that these tests have some magical qualities. He may think that all he has to do is take a battery of tests and that these tests will solve all of his problems. He may think that the counselor has a sort of crystal ball into which he can look and find the answers to all of his questions. When the counselor and tests cannot give him that kind of information, he may leave the counseling center just a little bit frustrated about the whole thing. He may even feel more confused than when he first came to the counseling center.

One of the things we would like to do tonight is explain to you in a simple manner some of the things which seem to be important in formulating vocational plans. We think we can do it best graphically. We have some charts which we would like to use as we talk, and we want you to feel free to interrupt at any time. Let's try and make this an informal bull session. Are there any questions to this point?

Now just a word about the counseling process. Most of you are coming in to get some educational or vocational guidance. Some of you already know what fields you wish to enter—you are pretty sure about your educational major. That's fine. These tests and interviews might help to confirm that major. On the other hand, some of you may be confused about what field you wish to enter. These tests and interviews may help to clarify the direction in which you wish to go. There is one thing I wish to stress at this point, however. We are dealing with a total individual. We simply cannot divide the individual into fragments. Vocational problems, educational problems, personal problems—they are all interrelated. This chart illustrates my point (*turning to Chart A—Figure 7 in the text*). You may have a vocational problem, but you may be having educational problems as well. Moreover, you may be having personal problems, financial problems, and so forth. Who knows? You might even be in love (*laughs from the group*)! For instance, we saw a fellow last week who had all A's in high school, but who has gone minus his first two quarters at Stanford. It seems that a "friend" at Roble [one of the residences for women] has been occupying all of his time (*laughs from the group*). We want to stress also that some students are helped by taking tests; others are not. It may be that you'll decide you won't want to take tests at all, and that you and your counselor can solve your problems by counseling alone.

MR. E. S.: You know, George, I would like to bring in something here to show the relationship between educational and vocational problems. I had a fellow who came in for vocational counseling, last week. He went minus one hundred and one scholastically at Stanford before the war. I think that's a new record (*laugh*). He claims that his reason for going minus was that he lacked clear-cut vocational goals. He was majoring in mixology at Rossotti's (*laugh*;) [this is a favorite hangout for Stanford students].

MR. G. B.: The point that we wish to emphasize is that individuals have all kinds of problems. A guy is almost abnormal if he doesn't have some personal difficulties. Everybody has had conflicts of one kind or another. It is true that we are dealing primarily with vocational problems in our Guidance Center, but we want you to feel free to discuss *any* of your situations with your counselor. Just talking about them might help to clarify and alleviate them just a bit. We are not going to work any miracles. We

are not going to solve all your problems for you. But we have found that just talking about them—getting them out into the open—often leads to their solution. Now, one of the things we may not be able to do in the two or three interviews which we have with you is to get at all your personal and educational problems, but we would like you to feel free to come back in the future to discuss them with us. Remember, that these two or three interviews with your counselor plus the tests may represent only the beginning of your educational, personal, and vocational planning. Any questions about this?

Important factors to consider in vocational planning are occupational trends and the occupational structure in our country. Mr. B. is a specialist in these areas. Larry, would you care to make a few comments on the “world of work”?

MR. L. B.: I would be glad to, George. I wonder how many of you know how many classified jobs there are in the U.S. Can we have some “guesstimates” (*laugh*)?

GUESSES FROM THE AUDIENCE: (1) 2,000, (2) 25,000, (3) a million (*laugh*), (4) 10,000.

MR. L. B.: The man who said 25,000 came the closest. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that there are about 30,000 different classified jobs in the U.S. So you can readily see how difficult it is to choose *one* job which is compatible with your interests and abilities.

Moreover, we have often thought of jobs in this country as being arranged on a kind of ladder. That is, you can start at the bottom rung and climb readily right up to the top. That may have been true a few years ago when you could start as office boy and work your way up to the presidency of the firm. However, the truth is that the present job structure in the U.S. does not resemble a ladder but rather a pyramid (*turning to Chart B—see Figure 8*). You can see on this chart what we really have is a broad base of semiskilled and unskilled workers who comprise about one half of our labor force. The categories get smaller as you go up through the clerical, farmers, proprietors, managers and officials, and the professions. Notice that the white-collar group—professions, managers and officials, clerical and sales—comprise about one-fourth of our labor force.

MR. G. B.: I might emphasize here, Larry, that you people at Stanford probably will never be working in the unskilled and semiskilled categories. Unless, of course, you go minus a hundred and one (*laughs*). You fellows are primarily interested in the jobs at the top of the pyramid—the professions, semiprofessions, managerial, clerical, and sales categories.

MR. L. B.: You will note that the professional group is only about five per cent. The fact we want to emphasize is that even though the professions

absorb only five per cent of our labor force, there are still about 4,000 jobs to pick from in this category.

MR. G. B.: You can see, then, the importance of vocational guidance. There are so many jobs to pick from.

MR. L. B.: And they aren't all doctors, lawyers, and engineers, either! Another important consideration is not only what the structure looks like now, but what it will be like when you graduate. Let us look at the "trend" picture (*turning to Chart C—see Figure 9*). This chart depicts occupational trends in the U.S. from 1910 to 1940. Notice the professional group in which we are most interested. Its relative position has not changed over the decades. It has increased slightly in absolute numbers, but it is still rather small; in fact, the smallest of all our occupational categories.

MR. G. B.: We might ask a question here. Which of the categories has shown the sharpest decrease since 1910?

ANSWER FROM AUDIENCE: Farmers.

MR. L. B.: That's correct. As our society has changed from agrarian to urban, we have seen a shift from farm to industrial-type jobs.

MR. E. S.: When these fellows left the farms, then, what did they become?

AUDIENCE: Machine operators, semiskilled workers, clerks.

MR. L. B.: Right! You will notice that the semiskilled and clerks show the sharpest increases.

Another thing we would like to stress in this connection is that we have a vocational library in the Guidance Center. We have thousands of pamphlets and monographs which will give you current information about jobs and opportunities. It will be worth your while to spend some time browsing through this vital information.

MR. G. B.: We have another interesting chart coming up which describes graphically the important factors to consider in vocational planning. Mr. S., would you like to comment on this?

MR. E. S.: I would like to give you a little information before I present the chart. There are a number of factors to consider in selecting a vocation and we at the center want to help you as much as we can. We want to stress, however, that we have our limitations. We can't solve all of your problems for you. One of the things we can do for you, however, is to give you some interest tests. These tests measure your likes and dislikes. There are no wrong answers on these tests. They merely compare your interests with successful people in various fields. We can also give you some aptitude tests. These tests measure your potential—your ability to perform in certain types of work.

MR. G. B.: I might mention here that there are several types of aptitude

tests. You have heard of mechanical-aptitude tests, clerical-aptitude tests, and so forth. These are examples of some of the aptitudes we can measure.

MR. E. S.: There is another kind of test which we have—it is called a personality test. Personality is a bad word, but we use it for lack of a better one. For instance, one test might indicate problems which you might be having at home or in the social or emotional areas. This test might be used by the counselor as a point of reference to permit you to discuss some of these problems. I might add that these personality tests are not completely reliable and they have to be interpreted with a great deal of caution.

There are, of course, other factors which we cannot measure adequately—for example, drive, ambition, and so forth. You know these eager-beaver guys who get all A's and make it tough on the rest of us (*laughs from the group*). Then there are other personality or character traits which are important in predicting success in an occupation, but which are difficult to measure. You are all familiar with individuals with real ability who wind up on Skid Row because they had too many lost week ends or the successful banker who couldn't resist the temptation of an \$850,000 lift of leisure.

Now these things which we have been talking about all go together in predicting success in a chosen vocation. Just compare yourself with the motor boat on this chart (*turning to Chart D—see Figure 10*), and I think you will get a clearer picture of the importance of each of these factors. You have a motor—that's your particular combination of abilities. We can measure some of these abilities with aptitude tests. You notice that the boat has a rudder which gives it direction. That is comparable to the interests which you have. Interests give you direction. We can measure your interests with "interest inventories." The boat has a bottom which we might compare to our personality or character traits.

MR. G. B.: As an old Navy man, I object to the use of the word bottom. How about calling it keel? (*laugh.*)

MR. E. S.: Finally, the boat must have some gas to make the motor run. We can compare this to the "drive" which we spoke of earlier.

All of these things together contribute to the forward progress the boat makes—or to how much success you will achieve.

There is another thing which I would like to reiterate before I take my seat—the potentialities and limitations of counseling at our center (*turning to Chart E—see Figure 11*). What we are all striving for is self-understanding, or as we depict it here on the chart—we want to get from San Francisco to New York. Now don't expect that we are going to drop you in New York with a few tests and interviews. There are no magic carpets in our center. You have to make the trip yourself. You are the guy that has to go across the country. The interest tests may act as signals to make your

trip less confusing. The aptitude tests may tell you something about the nature and capacity of your vehicle. Is it good enough to make such a long and hard trip? The occupational information will help to point out the topography, climate, and detours along the route. What we do, then, is to act as a sort of counseling AAA service, to make your trip a little easier. You are the guy who makes the trip, and we try to help you achieve this self-understanding. We may only get you started on this trip, but we hope that as a result of our efforts, you have a clearer conception of where you want to go and how you are going to get there.

MR. G. B: Another thing that we ought to emphasize here, perhaps, is that you fellows may get all the way to New York and then decide that you really didn't want to go there after all. That is, you may make some vocational plans and then find in a year or two that these plans aren't exactly what you want. You may want to change those plans. Well, it isn't too late to change them. There are no plans which any individual makes which are irrevocable. If you get to New York and you find you don't like it, you can move on. Vocational planning should be flexible and fluid. When you select a vocational goal, that doesn't mean that you must stick to it, come hell or high water! We don't expect that you are going to set a definite course for yourself as a result of two or three interviews and a few tests. Plans should be cumulative and be formulated over a period of time. All we hope to do here is to get you started.

MR. E. S: Another thing we should stress is that you must make the trip yourself—the counselor can't make it for you. Some students avail themselves of this service, take a few tests, and think that the tests are the only thing in the service. They take the tests, get them interpreted in the interview, and do nothing on their own to crystallize their vocational plans. We have a vocational library which we feel is an integral part of the guidance service. Use the library. There are occupational specialists there to help you find information about jobs and opportunities. In other words, much of vocational planning you will be doing on your own. The last interview with your counselor is a cooperative effort between you and your counselor. He will contribute interpretations of the tests which you have taken and their vocational implications, but you will contribute information about yourself and also vocational data which you have collected in the vocational library. If you fellows don't do your part, then you definitely won't be receiving the full value of the service.

MR. G. B: Would anyone care to ask any questions? (*There are many questions from this group—much free discussion about tests, occupations, and the role of the counselor.*)

MR. G. B: We should stress another point. We often find in our counsel-

ing that a student has a personal problem and is reluctant to talk about it. For some reason or other, many people think there is a certain stigma attached to having personal conflicts. We all have problems. I'm not talking about (*turning to Chart F—see Figure 12*) major mental disorders [psychoses]. I'm not even referring to minor mental disorders [neuroses] —(*again pointing to Chart F*). What I'm talking about are the common, everyday, personal problems which all of us have (*again pointing to Chart F*). We all have them, so don't hesitate to discuss them with your counselor. They naturally will influence your planning. You see, your educational, vocational, and personal problems are all intimately interrelated. All of the counselors at the Guidance Center are trained clinicians and will be happy to discuss your personal problems with you. Moreover, if you feel that your problems are of a personal nature only, the center has a personal counselor who will be glad to talk to you.

QUESTION FROM GROUP: You said minor personal problems. It seems to me that the personal problems I have are kind of major!

MR. G. B: I'm glad you mentioned that. I used the word "minor," I suppose, because of the stigma we still attach to *major* problems. A problem is a problem—it may seem like a minor problem to someone else, but it may be a major problem to you. Just selecting the right vocation may be a major problem for you.

Well, fellows, this concludes our discussion tonight. Before we break up, let me distribute a folder to each of you. In it we have the Strong Vocational Interest Test and a General Information form which we have devised. (*Instructions are given at this point for completing the test blank and the information form.*)

Appendix C

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